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*The "New Curriculum" Challenges the Modern Foreign Language Teacher**

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(*Author's summary.*—Sympathizers with foreign language study should understand the trends manifest in the "new curriculum." Six of these trends are discussed, together with modifications already made in some courses of study, and criticisms against much of the present teaching explained. A broadly cultural presentation, emphasizing the social aspects of language, with provision for giving the pupil of lesser linguistic ability a workable concept of national backgrounds, is suggested.)

BEFORE we can discuss intelligently the challenge of the new curriculum to the modern foreign language teacher, it is necessary to come to some agreement as to what we mean by the "new curriculum." In approaching this consideration we need to recognize that newness is not necessarily a sign of superiority. A story is told of a newly elected representative in the days of Uncle Joe Cannon who approached the Speaker of the House for an opinion on his maiden speech. Speaker Cannon replied, "Well, young man, that was a very interesting speech. You said some things that were good and some things that were new. Unfortunately, the things that were good were not new and the things that were new were not good."

At the same time it must be understood that antiquity is also not a guarantee of excellence. We do not insist on age in, for example, eggs or clothes or automobiles. Our discussion will be most profitable as we view traditional procedures and emerging tendencies alike in the light of those aims for the secondary school which we accept as valid.

In a very real sense it is erroneous to speak of the "new curriculum" of the secondary school. Many schools are experimenting with new types of curriculum material. A number of states have active committees attacking the problem of curriculum revision on a fundamental basis. The Progressive Education Association has sponsored a far-reaching experiment in which thirty schools have been given wide latitude in developing a more functional organization of experience for the high-school years. The various regional accrediting agencies, the National Department of High-School Principals, and the newly organized American Youth Commission all stress the need of a fundamental reorientation of secondary education. A study of the various plans proposed, however, does not lead to the discovery of any common proposal which may be said to represent "the new curriculum." Even the thirty schools of the Progressive Education Experiment differ almost as much from each other in the plans proposed as from the average high school. The chief point on which all are agreed is that some-

* A paper read before the Modern Language Section of the Michigan Education Association at Detroit on October 16, 1936.

thing is fundamentally wrong with what we have now—that the American high school has failed to produce dividends comparable to the investment it represents.

While we cannot identify any common pattern of the “new curriculum,” we can, I believe, discern certain trends of development which are likely to have a marked influence on the high-school program of the future. It is with these tendencies that I propose that we concern ourselves. I shall present briefly six points of emphasis which are of special concern to the modern foreign language teacher.

1. The concept of the curriculum itself is expanding. It no longer means a body of subject-matter or a course of study. While we find the term used with different meanings by various writers, there would seem to be a growing acceptance of the point of view presented in a recent volume¹ that “the school curriculum is held to be composed of all the experiences children have under the guidance of teachers.”

2. In the second place we find a trend toward integration of the child's experience. He does not automatically assimilate separate fragments of French, algebra, English, and history. He has series of experiences. The contribution of the modern foreign language class, if it is to be functional, must be related to the child's previous experience and to whatever learning is taking place in other classes, in extra-curricular activities, and in his out-of-school pursuits. There are various points of view as to how this assimilation may best be achieved. The organization of the child's learning experiences around certain broad centers of interest has made much progress in the elementary school. Obviously, the problem is not so simple on the high-school level. Some high schools have been successful in organizing the learning experiences of the secondary-school period into patterns which they find more significant than the conventional subject-organization. In other cases greater emphasis has been placed upon correlating the work of the various classes and modifying the work within the course to take account of broader fields of relationship. In any case, the curriculum of the future would seem to be organized through consideration of the nature of society and the needs of the child, with subject-matter divisions given only secondary consideration, if observed at all.

A comment by Professor Lyman on the English curriculum has equal pertinence for the modern foreign language teacher:² “Integrated programs are on the way. In certain California cities the report is that the English Departments as such are discontinued. . . . It is just as foolish for us to ignore or lament or ridicule this inevitable trend in the secondary-school curriculum as it is for us to ignore or lament or ridicule the experimental

¹ Caswell, H. L., and Campbell, D. C., *Curriculum Development* (New York: American Book Company, 1935), p. 69.

² Lyman, R. L., “Tradition and Innovation in the Senior High School English Curriculum,” *English Journal*, vol. xxiv, no. 3 (March, 1935).

trend away from rugged individualism toward inter-group cooperation in economic life. . . . The English curriculum, and all other aspects of an educational program on all levels, is undergoing changes. The challenge to us, even in the narrowest sense for departmental preservation, is certainly to participate in these changes, as best we can, to make them evolutionary rather than revolutionary."

3. The "new curriculum" will be broadly social in orientation. Not only does this imply increased recognition of the social studies—as has been noticeably true of recent reorganizations—but the realization that all curricular material has social implications which cannot be overlooked.

In those countries which have succumbed to dictatorship the school has become a major instrument of social policy with a view to developing those attitudes and beliefs which will make for stability of the régime. The civic qualities requisite to the success of a democracy are far different than those in the dictatorship demands, but the need for common understanding is no less imperative and the rôle of the school is even more important. The increased control of technology and the shrinking of distances through advances in transportation and communication have made us increasingly dependent upon the intelligence, sincerity, and good-will of the great mass of the people. We must rely for survival on the voluntary cooperation of citizens. We can invoke no forced solidarity through dictates imposed from above. Recent reports of several national committees will be of special significance to the curriculum-maker. The report of the Committee on Social-Economic Goals for America³ presents an orientation with which every student of the secondary-school curriculum must reckon. The Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission on the Social Studies⁴ and the report on Issues of Secondary Education of the Department of Secondary-School Principals⁵ develop social implications which, if accepted, will affect significantly the curriculum of the secondary school. The curriculum of the future will certainly place increasing emphasis on experiences which give opportunities for practicing cooperation and for an understanding of the conditions essential to harmony in domestic, local, national, or international relations.

4. There is a tendency to break down the barriers which separate the school from life around it. Motion picture and radio are serving to bring the world of daily life into the classroom, while on the other hand imaginative teachers are taking their classes to visit courts and stores and factories and into actual participation in civic enterprises.

³ Social-Economic Goals for America." Reprinted from the *Journal of the National Education Association* for January, 1934.

⁴ Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission*. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934.)

⁵ Report of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education, "Issues of Secondary Education," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the N.E.A.*, vol. xx, no. 50 (January, 1936).

Those schools which are giving the most fundamental thought to modifying their curricula are placing much emphasis on the kinds of experience which teach pupils to judge discriminatingly, to distinguish fact from propaganda, to substitute rational thinking for prejudice. Perhaps the most telling indictment of our secondary schools has been the charge that they have failed to prepare pupils to meet the problems of democratic citizenship with responsibility and intelligence. One such criticism was given by a group of recent high-school graduates at a conference sponsored by the American Youth Commission. Their chief complaint was that the school had given them only facts from books. It had not brought them into contact with the actual working of government or industry or social relations. It had not given them practice in sifting the true from the false in the bewildering barrage of conflicting opinion, exhortation, and solicitation with which they found themselves confronted.

5. Another point of emphasis is the recognition that courses of study, assignments, and teaching methods must be adapted to the widely varying needs of individual pupils. That adaptation of instructional material must be qualitative as well as quantitative. Too often in the past we have been satisfied to put children into so-called "homogeneous groups" and to give them more intensive drill spread over a longer time but using the same type of material as we gave their more fortunate brothers and sisters. Pupils *are* different and homogeneous groups don't stay homogeneous. If we are professionally honest, we cannot escape the challenge of providing each child opportunity for achievement in which he can find success and satisfaction.

Obviously, this demands greatly increased provision for assistance to the pupil in arriving at wise decisions in the choices he must make. Guidance becomes an essential and important part of the school program. Ultimately the concept of education adapted to individuals will lead to complete revision of our present system of marks, records, and reports.

6. Finally, there is increasing recognition that pupils should have a chance to participate in the planning and evaluation of class activities as well as in performing them. We have long since passed that stage of assignment which tolerated "For tomorrow, read the next two pages." However, a well-organized lesson plan which the teacher has worked out in advance without giving the pupils a share in the thinking which produced it is not much of an improvement. The "new curriculum" will make much of projects, reports, and activities in which the group working together consider what it is they want to achieve, what are the best means of bringing about the desired result, and how successful they have been. The effective teacher will work as a helpful but unobtrusive member of the group.

I recognize that modern foreign language teachers have not been oblivious to these trends in the development of the curriculum. Reports of

significant changes in modern foreign language courses in widely separated school systems present convincing evidence that many teachers are aware of the new demands and are making changes to meet them. In Palo Alto, Kaulfers and Roberts have worked out a correlation of English and Spanish for the pupil of lower linguistic ability with special reference to the contribution of the Spanish-speaking peoples to contemporary culture in California. There is emphasis on Spanish expressions, especially those which have left their mark in the nomenclature of California, on travel lore, theater programs, magazines and newspapers, literature and folklore read for comprehension rather than translation. Drill on grammatical forms is conspicuously absent.

In Detroit the courses in "Non-College Preparatory" French and German reported by Miss Moehlman in the *Modern Language Journal*⁶ represent a wholesome recognition of the possibilities of worthwhile outcomes from foreign language for non-academic pupils. Pupils learned German songs, proverbs, games, the idioms of daily life. Weekly excursions by stereopticon and postcard made the famous cities and beauty spots of Germany familiar. A similar procedure characterized the French class.

In New York City a "Committee on Modern Languages in a Changing World" has prepared a *Syllabus for Pupils of Lower Linguistic Ability* which recognizes the newer curriculum trends. The committee states its aims as:

1. To integrate the study of the language, customs, art, music, literature, history and geography of the foreign nation, stressing the interrelations between the foreign civilization and our own.
2. To stress the points of contact between the foreign language and the vernacular, so that the student's knowledge of English may be broadened and deepened as he progresses in his study of the foreign language.

To carry out these aims the committee suggests a wide range of activities in reading, dialogue, songs, memorization, and acquaintance with cultural material. The syllabus "practically eliminates formal grammar" and demonstrates an "insistence on fluency rather than accuracy" that "will no doubt be considered sacrilegious by grammatically-minded teachers." From Beverly Hills and Oakland, from New Jersey and Michigan come other reports from variants from the traditional course in foreign language. Unquestionably teachers in many schools are courageously departing from the beaten track. It must be recognized, however, that these newer courses represent the exception rather than the rule. The situation is forcefully characterized by Monroe:⁷ "Let me say here that it is my impression that the scope of the objective of most classes which I have visited does not go beyond the teaching of 'skills.' In the judgment of our increasingly social-minded world such 'skills,' even well learned, will not justify the retention

⁶ *Modern Language Journal*, vol. XIX, no. 7 (April, 1935), pp. 537-543.

⁷ Hendrix, W. S., and Monroe, R. E., "A Social Approach to the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, vol. XIX, no. 7 (April, 1935), pp. 527-536.

of the small place to which languages have been reduced in the curricula of schools and colleges."

In the light of curriculum change the following criticisms may be fairly directed against much of the teaching of foreign language:

1. *The emphasis has been on skills rather than content.*—In particular, there has been much grammatical drill which has little relation to language growth.

With the large numbers enrolled in modern foreign language courses we have too frequently made our primary aim the development of a competence in reading and speaking the foreign tongue, an achievement which is attainable in the time available only for a small number of those enrolled in our language classes. Only by a very generous construction of possible use can we justify the strictly linguistic objective, even for this superior few. The increased emphasis on the cultural outcomes of modern foreign language teaching, the use of realia, the emphasis on songs and customs and folkways of the foreign people, are encouraging signs. It must be admitted that in many cases they are yet incidental rather than primary aims. In terms of the curriculum trends cited earlier in this discussion this cultural aim may well become the dominant one. This point of view is tellingly presented by Roberts and Kaulfers in a recent discussion in the *School Review*.⁸ These writers suggest three points of view which have been and to some extent still are dominant in foreign language teaching: "The first regards language simply as a code whose symbolism is to be mastered. Thus conceived the study of language becomes primarily a skill subject with major attention given to drill on the mechanics of speech. There is little question that the first two years of foreign language—and a considerable proportion of elementary work in English—has been predominantly of this type.

" . . . The second point of view regards language not as a code or a tool but as an art, with a history, a terminology, and a psychology of its own. So conceived, the study of language becomes an appreciation subject rather than a drill subject, and the outcomes properly belong in the field of the attitudes, interests, and appreciations rather than in the field of the skills.

" . . . The third point of view regards language not merely as a tool nor as an art but in its recorded form as a treasury of human thought and experience."

The writers go on to suggest the unlimited possibilities for integration with English, social studies, art, and sciences which are evident when this third point of view is adopted as primary. They suggest that foreign language divisions conceived in this spirit may be changed from "compartments of Spanish, German, French" into "departments of Spain, Germany,

⁸ Roberts, H. B., and Kaulfers, Walter V., "Integration in Language Art," *School Review*, vol. XVIII, no. 10 (December, 1935), pp. 737-744.

and France."⁹ The newer courses cited earlier in this article are excellent examples of the application of this aim.

2. *There is all too commonly an entire disregard of differences among pupils in capacities, interests, and probable future use of language.*—This fault is by no means peculiar to foreign language departments, but the maladjustment resulting has been particularly acute in the languages and mathematics. This is partly because the materials in these fields, viewed as subject-matter, have lent themselves most easily to logical analysis and memorization; partly because the mathematic and linguistic disciplines have been considered par excellence preparation for college entrance, with the result that courses have been organized with the assumed needs of future college students in mind.

Obviously, the cultural approach to modern foreign language study makes possible a relationship to the varying needs of individual pupils which cannot be achieved under that philosophy which makes language teaching primarily a skill subject. The very heart of the "new curriculum" is the consideration of the needs of the individual pupil. What are the experiences which will be most profitable to him considering the kind of person he is and the kind of world in which he is going to live? There can be no preconceived answer.

Some proponents of the traditional method of modern foreign language teaching are disturbed at the emphasis upon the study of culture rather than upon the study of language as such. They fear that it may result simply in a smattering—that students may acquire no tangible results in the form of ability to write and speak the language and may have only a superficial view of its culture. The experience of those who have made experiments with the new approach to language does not justify this concern. In the first place, we are likely to over-estimate the residue which remains after even several years of intensive linguistic drill. Successful teachers who have used the cultural approach indicate that the abler students under this plan are using language as a means of communication and a tool to reach the cultural store which is the primary end to be sought and have actually achieved a greater fluency and a more comprehensive control of the language. For the pupil of lesser ability there is made possible the attainment of an appreciation of foreign culture which gives added significance to news of the current day, radio and motion picture programs, and the many contacts with foreign culture which contemporary American civilization affords. This is possible primarily through the freedom from an attempt to achieve what for them is not possible. The aim is, as the New York Course of Study for the Group of Lower Linguistic Ability expresses it, "A new

⁹ This suggestion had of course previously been made by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, President of Columbia University, in his annual report for 1931. [Ed.]

orientation with stress on those things which students can do, can accomplish with a feeling of satisfaction and enjoyment."

3. *Modern language teachers have too frequently been "departmental nationalists."*—This fault, again, is not one of which they have a monopoly. Throughout the secondary field the unwillingness of subject-matter specialists to see their departments curtailed has been the most potent influence resisting needed curriculum change. Modern foreign language teaching has had its share of academic chauvinists who have placed loyalty to subject first and needs of pupils second. There are teachers who think of the success of their efforts in terms of the number of pupils who can be inveigled into electing the subject they teach. They hope pupils may be saved but are quite sure that salvation is possible only through the medium of their specialty. In some cases college entrance requirements have been looked upon as a sort of last outpost against those barbarians who would widen the fields of choice in terms of student needs.

In those schools where there is the most serious effort to discover the pupil's needs and use these as a basis for curriculum revision it seems evident that the resulting pattern will not follow the conventional subject divisions. In some cases teachers of foreign language have remained apart from the general reorganization and have played little part in the resulting integrated program. Some of them perhaps have been like the elderly mathematics teacher who said, "Thank God, they can't make my subject progressive." I do not believe that modern foreign language teachers can stay aloof from the curriculum trends which seem evident today, without serious loss both to the resulting new program and to the foreign language field. Integration is on the way. The teacher rich in knowledge of foreign cultures will have much to contribute to the new program of the secondary school. As such a teacher realizes the aims and possibilities of that program and devotes his energy to discovering the special contributions his field of interest can contribute he will find an important place in the program of the reorganized secondary school.

4. *Modern foreign language teachers have too often been apologists rather than interpreters of foreign culture.*—I have been insisting that the culture rather than the language *per se* should be central in the language teacher's aim. It is the significance of that culture to American boys and girls, however, which concerns us. It is important that they have a comprehension of the contributions of France or Germany or the Spanish-speaking peoples to the world in which they live and that they have a sympathetic understanding of the problems with which these peoples are faced. It is undesirable that they become parties to nationalistic prejudices or serve as propagandists for the policies of whatever government may happen to be in power. Extreme partisanship is as bad as extreme isolation. I knew a Latin teacher who was highly incensed when a pupil characterized the Catilinian orations as bombast and suggested that Cicero was a political climber who

allowed himself to be used as a tool of selfish interests. She should have welcomed his attitude as an opportunity to lead the boy to a more comprehensive study of Roman political institutions and the troubled times in which Cicero lived, and—more important—to see what contribution that study can make to an understanding of political motives and political problems in our own day. In the same way there are teachers of French who feel themselves obligated to an uncritical enthusiasm for French art and take at face-value the statements of the French press on international affairs; German teachers who unquestioningly accept the official pronouncements on German politics and German culture; teachers of Italian who permit themselves to be tied to the tail of the Fascist kite.

It is obvious that the teacher whose practice will avoid the faults here mentioned must be a person of rich cultural background with broad sympathies and keen understanding. Command of grammar, research in etymology, and a reading knowledge of the classics will not suffice. He must know the language and know it thoroughly, but he must know more. He must appreciate the history and art and music of the nation with whose culture he deals, the ideals which have guided its leaders, its strengths and its weaknesses, the customs of everyday life, its national shrines, the spirit of its people. His must be a broad general training with an appreciative acquaintance with the fields of literature and history, of science and the arts, and a keen understanding of the contemporary problems of American life. An old Scotchman once said of the village schoolmaster, "Outside of his profession, he's a verra ignorant man." The teacher who essays to make of modern foreign language an open door to the culture of a race may not leave himself open to this charge.

The point of view that I have presented here is not unsympathetic to the modern foreign language field. Actually I believe I may claim to be far more friendly than the die-hard linguistic specialist. The curriculum-maker of today is a pragmatist. He thinks of modern foreign language in the curriculum in terms of the question "What has this segment of world culture to contribute to Mary Jones and John Smith?" To that search the modern foreign language teachers may well devote themselves. If, on the other hand, they spend their energies as special pleaders urging for language a peculiar place in the sun they will, in my judgment, be committing slow but sure professional suicide.

Simplifying the "Classics"

WILFRED A. BEARDSLEY

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RESPECTABLE modern language teachers appear to have at least one magnificent obsession; the more respectable they are, the greater the obsession: that the "Classics" are too sacred to be altered. I heard the presiding officer at a language meeting recently exclaim: "Of course no one would try to simplify *this* text, for it is a Classic!" Somewhat the same feeling was illustrated by a friend of mine who was remaking a text according to all the latest principles of word-count; she said: "You understand that I would not change the text if it had any literary value." It seems to me that these two teachers unconsciously express a point of view which is in its way quite as indefensible as if they proposed teaching the Constitution of the United States without mentioning any of its amendments. They tacitly accept the proposition that only worthless texts should be simplified or abbreviated, while putting off into a Limbo of unapproachable perfection what they call the Classics.

Perhaps teachers of French are a little more likely than teachers of Spanish and German to take this view, for French has been justly noted for the *mot juste* and the fine craftsmanship of fitting language to thought. Even in French, however, there are Classics and classics. I presume that we may call "classics" any literary production of some dignity, of general acceptance by competent judges of literature. Age or maturity would be normal, but not required. If we accept some such general definition of the classics, we should still have to admit that there are numerous and varied reasons why certain works have appeared agreeable to the judges. I should not have the temerity to suggest simplifying all the classics, but I heartily suggest mental catharsis on the part of our teachers in the matter of the holiness of these classics as a group apart.

First of all, let us admit that what we call "style" forms the chief charm of many of the works commonly accepted as admirable. If the style is delicate, if the effectiveness of certain scenes depends upon word-play or linguistic nuances, it seems obvious that their attractiveness is lost or at least definitely lessened by editorial simplification or abbreviation. If the attractiveness of the work depends chiefly on plot or story, then simplification or abbreviation will scarcely damage the classic at all.

As illustrations, let us cite a play of Racine as compared with a play of Molière. I believe that scholars would generally agree that Racine's *Phèdre*, *Andromaque*, or *Athalie* could hardly be simplified and retain its value. On the other hand, Molière's *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme* depends so much on ridiculous or amusing scenes and the old, old story of the *nouveau riche* that it can be successfully simplified without much loss. The recent edition of this play by Goddard and Rosselet proves the point, for the simplified

play carries most of the charm of the original, though it has been made simple enough for early stages of French reading. The Old French *Aucassin et Nicolette* is another case in point. Though the Old French version has a charm all its own, it is obviously the love story which makes the most nearly universal appeal. When it is retold and vastly simplified, as in the edition of Otto F. Bond, it remains a zestful story worth reading. Not so well fares the famous *Chanson de Roland*. Here there is an atmosphere of rugged but simple psychology, a true heroic mould which depends in large measure on the same qualities in the language. I have never seen a modern, simplified, or shortened version of the *Chanson de Roland* which seemed to me to carry the virtues of the original, and I do not except the very capable version of Chamard.

The novel can most often be simplified without any great loss of value, as countless examples in our textbook lists will show. Yet not all novels are equally adapted to simplification, as anyone can see by considering the *Princesse de Clèves*. Here we have a novel distinguished by age, approved by all critics, and almost worshipped by our profession. It stands untouchable, however, for its value lies almost entirely in its delicacy of style, its fastidious good taste and its finesse of sentiment. Attempt to simplify, abbreviate or otherwise tamper with the *Princesse de Clèves*, and you will have a very definite loss of value. Its story is pitifully scanty—but for its *genre* of literature no great story is needed. Here is preciousness at its best, and anyone presenting this in a simplified edition to high-school pupils of our gum-chewing areas must be thought mildly insane.

The problem now becomes much clearer. Evidently the foremost task of the simplifier is to produce a simplification which will not shame the original, which will in fact carry to the student much of the stimulus of the original. Story-value can be easily carried over; style, if at all delicate, runs an excellent chance of being lost.

Obviously good taste and sympathetic understanding on the part of the editor are required. First of all, he must know what makes the original attractive, and this means that he must possess considerable literary judgment. Thus the making of simplified texts becomes not so much a matter of word-counting and checking with the Vander Beke list, or of cleverness in making new-type questions. Only those who really appreciate great literary works can make worthy simplified editions of them. To those who can and will combine good taste, literary judgment and Vander Beke, the rest of us owe a considerable debt of professional gratitude. More power to them! To those who make simplified versions without fidelity and good taste, I can only hope that they will be stricken with a mild arthritis in the typewriter fingers before they have done the profession real damage.

The Theory of Definition and its Application to Vocabulary Limitation

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(*Author's summary.*—A restricted self-contained vocabulary can be of great value as a basis for future and a touchstone for present linguistic acquirement. Such a vocabulary must be arrived at by semantic rather than by statistical methods; though word-counts, when modified and supplemented by common sense, are of value in providing preliminary 'raw materials.' An analysis of the nature of Definition shows the rational principles for word-elimination.)

WITH the widespread utilization of frequency word-counts to determine which words should first be taught to children learning their own language and older persons learning a foreign one, a further possibility has presented itself. Is it not possible to make a system out of such a limited vocabulary, an instrument with which the learner will be enabled to express himself easily and clearly, a system with a grammar of its own—complete in itself?

If this can be done, the teaching of languages and of the mother-tongue will be revolutionized. There would at last be the reality of the two-year or even one-year language course producing pupils who were able to express themselves. In the kindergarten, the child would have (say) a thousand words which he had been trained to control; a number of these would be words which today are normally considered to be beyond his powers—though with adequate and interesting methods of presentation he can acquire them without strain—and the potential increase in mastery which this selected vocabulary would give him over his future studies and his general environment can hardly be overestimated.

A thousand-word vocabulary obtained by a frequency count is not satisfactory. In the first place, such a vocabulary cannot be what it claims to be. *God* would not be in the first five hundred words, and *thee, thou, and forth* in the second five hundred of Thorndike's list¹ if he had based his count upon anything like an average selection of material. It has been estimated, too, that a staff of people would have to count words for a phenomenal number of years to arrive at a selection that would merit this title of "average." Thirdly and fourthly come the questions of idioms and grammar. Is every word to be permitted its full range of tricks, as in normal English? If not, are the idioms allowed to be chosen on grounds of frequency or of utility, and by what principles is the grammar to be simplified? These questions can only be mentioned here, though they are relevant to the whole problem under consideration.

Fifthly,² we come nearer to the heart of our subject when we consider

¹ *Teacher's Word Book*, 1927. Many examples throughout this paper are taken from the "first-thousand" list in that book. It is of course understood that there is no implied criticism of Dr. Thorndike for failing to achieve ends which he never had in view.

² No mention has been made of "shot-gun" words, whose variety of functions and multi-

the synonyms of which any frequency word-list provides such a profusion. One is not declaring that any words are perfect synonyms when one points out the surely obvious fact that the nuances which differentiate such pairs of words are better left until some effort has been made to cover the general field of discourse—at which point they will be far more ably coped with. Few people would contest the proposal to halve such pairs as these in Thorndike's first thousand: *till* and *until*; *though* and *although*; *gold* and *golden*; and even *round* and *around*; *reply* and *answer*; *beast* and *animal*; *shore* and *coast*. Nor probably would they object to the suggestion that unnecessary overlapping occurs in such clusters as *ground*, *earth*, *soil*, *land*; *big*, *great*, *large*; *river*, *brook*, *stream*.

It is only scratching the surface of the problem to determine to weed out synonyms; and it is a deplorable waste of time to seek further safety by attempting to correlate Thorndike's results with those of Palmer, Fawcett, West, Swenson, Hornby and the rest. For if, in one's search for offending synonyms, one gives more than the most superficial glance at Thorndike's one-thousand-word list, more radical possibilities present themselves. Since we have the word *time*, cannot at least eight of the other words be dispensed with—*always*, *since*, *till*, *until*, *soon*, *date*, *hurry*, *season*? And cannot *few*, *many*, *several*, *count*, *crowd*, *figure*, all be expressed in terms of *number*; and *fair*, *must*, *should*, *duty*, *fit*, *profit*, *proper*, *suit*, all be expressed in terms of what is *right*?² With the saving which such a refocussing would render possible, many essential ideas which our present list does not touch upon could be expressed. Which?—and in what terms? Arithmetical principles will never provide us with a technique for deciding which words can be eliminated.

The way of approach is indicated by the very nature of language. The existence of language, and all the facts contingent upon its use, presuppose the possibility of substitution. Speech itself is the substitution of words for actions or objects, and all our operations of definition, description and explanation work on the assumption that no particular word is indispensable.

All words are interconnected in the network which is our vocabulary. Through long use and misuse this has become organized—an obvious statement, the proof of which lies in the fact that our language is not a welter of proper names.

Reflecting the relations between our thoughts, words are themselves related in ways that can be grouped under four general headings: Similarity Relations, Part and Whole Relations, Causal Relations, and Temporal and Spatial Relations.

For practical purposes it will be advisable to subdivide these headings,

plicity of senses make them very unsuitable for a "basic" vocabulary. Among such offenders in the Thorndike list are *case*, *just*, *mean*—all in the first five hundred.

² One is not suggesting that such drastic pruning could be found desirable or practicable.

and to add a few common complex relations, chosen on a pragmatic basis. Ogden and Richards were the first to do this from this standpoint in *The Meaning of Meaning*;⁴ and Mr. Ogden carried out a further analysis in evolving a technique of word-elimination during the construction of his 850-word system of Basic English.

In view of the radical research that went into its making Basic is by many supposed to claim to give an account of the universe in terms of its fundamental elements, and criticized in so far as it fails to do so. Such critics make the assumption that our present knowledge is capable of giving such an account; and that it could be generally used if it could be codified; and they also make the fatal philosopher's assumption that all men have the same thing in mind when they use the same words.

A limited vocabulary of the type required must symbolize the physical world at the level of our sense-perceptions; and its touchstone must be words which stand for real and observed bodies or for the sensations which precede the recognition of such bodies. All general terms arise from particular experiences, and all language, however metaphorical, refers ultimately to the interpretation of sense-perceptions. Yet the nature of such reference is by no means reflected in the nature of the language employed—the use of a word is no proof of the existence of its referent: a word is merely, in Bentham's phrase, a sign of thought, one factor of the sign-situation, in which the symbol and referent are connected only through the reference of the speaker.

All this is regarding language simply in its referential aspect, and ignoring its persuasive and emotional functions. Emotive⁵ language can be defined, though such definitions are hazardous, and their validity utterly dependent on the unique purposes for which they are used. Such a definition itself would have no emotive value, except the somewhat negative one of irritating the speaker of the original phrase. In any case, in view of their communicational difficulties, it is best to keep emotive words out of a limited vocabulary. Examples of such words are *home* and *adultery*, which combine with an objective description a subjective interpretation. Bentham, pioneer of linguistic psychology, describes emotive language as giving "excitation to the will," while referential language gives "information to the understanding."

A further contribution of Bentham's to the analysis of language was his exposition of the nature of fictions. Fictions proper cannot be defined in the ordinary way, they have no superior genus; but in his process of

⁴ *The Meaning of Meaning*, by C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards. See the chapter on "The Theory of Definition."

⁵ See I. A. Richards, *Principles of Literary Criticism*, page 267, for a concise statement of the distinction between emotive and referential language.

Archetypation⁶ Bentham devised a simple and original way of either pinning them down to reality or exploding them as fantasies. Fictions cannot be understood except in so far as their relations to real entities are perceived; and gradation into levels holds good in the fictional as in all divisions of the field of words.

A vocabulary limited in accordance with these principles of definition will necessarily dispense with a large number of commonly used fictions, not in view of their nature as fictions (for fictions are necessary, and only dangerous when not recognized as *being* fictions) but in view of the complex character of the sign-situation for which they stand; or because they have an emotive function.

Much of the vocabulary of any science consists of fictions, and such words depend upon contexts which are too abstruse to admit of their use in general discussion. Catering for the specialist involves co-operation between the specialist and the linguist, in order to provide an extension which will put the framework of the general vocabulary in touch with the realm of international terminology. Mr. Ogden considers that for most sciences a few hundred words will achieve this result.

Local-color words are a minor problem, to be solved in speech by direct symbolization,⁷ and in writing by explanation.

With the problem of vocabulary simplification thus clarified, Mr. Ogden split up the four definition categories above referred to into thirty routes,⁸ adding to the general list common complex relations, including "attitude" relations and social relations. Ramifications covered Magnitude, Number, Opposition⁹ and Negation, derivatives, technical terms, and equivalents in other languages; and also the definition route itself, the communication between the symbol under examination and the symbol in terms of which it would itself be defined.

The result of such an examination of the conjugates of each word is a network of interlinked¹⁰ definitions. The systematic charting of all the main possibilities provides a complete view of the possibilities of elimination. In many cases economy may be effected by the definition of particular words in terms of more general ones; but sometimes it may be possible to dispense

⁶ Bentham's own account of this process is given in his *Theory of Fictions*, 1932, pages 86-90. Dr. Scott Buchanan has developed the technique more systematically in his *Symbolic Distance*.

⁷ That is, the use of the requisite term (in the language of the speaker) can be accompanied by pointing or gesture.

⁸ For a full discussion of these routes, see article "The Panoptic Method," by C. K. Ogden, in *Psyche*, January, 1930, pages 9-28.

⁹ Opposition by definition is, of course only one aspect of the whole problem, which is radically discussed by C. K. Ogden in *Opposition*, 1932.

¹⁰ See L. W. Lockhart's *Word Economy*, 1931.

with the higher-level word: the word *fluid*, for example, loses its place if both *gas* and *liquid*¹¹ are retained.

The definition routes themselves have to be given words that will cover them, and another question is the selection of the articles, conjunctions, particles, and so on, without which communication would be difficult. These latter are themselves a kind of fictions; but they present little danger, as they are universally recognized to be nothing but linguistic conveniences.

This in essence is the orthological approach to the question of vocabulary limitation. There are indications that the public dissent and neglect which it has received from the official word-counters have been privately compensated by the sincerest form of flattery. For example, in 1930, when Mr. Ogden first brought out his 850-word vocabulary, not one 1000-word list, whether statistical or eclectic in its mode of composition, contained more than 58 per cent of the words which Ogden had selected. By 1934, the average of the principal word-lists was nearer to 80 per cent.¹² And selections of common words have given place to selections of most useful words, or of "defining-words."

The general theory of definition suggests many further fields for useful exploration. One might in conclusion mention among such desiderata: (a) the reconsideration of much work¹³ on logic and language which has not been adequately evaluated; (b) the application of the Theory of Definition to the simplification of other languages;¹⁴ (c) the systematization of techniques for teaching elementary meanings; (d) the scientific definition¹⁵ of our whole stock of words.

¹¹ It is worth mentioning that neither *gas*, *liquid*, or *fluid* is found in the first thousand of a "statistical" list. See Thorndike, *op. cit.*

¹² See M. West, *A Critical Examination of Basic English* (1934), footnote to page 53. West's own vocabulary had 626 of the 850 words.

¹³ To give two examples, C. S. Peirce, the pragmatist, and Bentham himself, whose 75,000 pages of manuscripts have never been attacked from the linguistic angle.

¹⁴ Carrying a stage further the work Charles Duff has done in several languages: e.g., *The Basis and Essentials of German*, by Charles Duff (Nelson, 1935).

¹⁵ By multiple definition, as demonstrated by Dr. Richards in his *Rules of Reason*; and as explained by the same writer in *Mencius on the Mind*, chapter 4.

L'Année littéraire mil neuf cent trente-six

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IL semble qu'il faille considérer comme l'événement littéraire le plus important de l'année, l'Exposition organisée à la Bibliothèque Nationale à l'occasion du "Cinquantenaire du Symbolisme," ouverte en juin, et qui eut un succès considérable. Il faut, d'ailleurs, ici prendre le terme Symbolisme dans un sens très large, car, avec les précurseurs du mouvement, avec les peintres, avec les musiciens, avec les après-venants, bref avec tous ceux qui ont tenu de près ou de loin au Symbolisme, on trouvait dans ces salles un coup d'œil d'ensemble sur toute une époque. Le catalogue (préparé par les soins de MM. Jaulme et Moncel, de la Bibliothèque Nationale, et préfacé par Edmond Jaloux) est un document qui restera, ainsi qu'un bon nombre de publications qui ont vu le jour à l'occasion de ce cinquantenaire, tels: G. Kahn, *Les Origines du Symbolisme*; A. Mary, *La Forêt symboliste*; Max Daireaux, *Villiers de l'Isle Adam*; E. Vinchon, *L'Œuvre de Maurice Rollinat*; Colonel Godchot, *Arthur Rimbaud, Ne varietur*; Daniel Rops, *Rimbaud, Le Drame spirituel*; Émile Caillet, *Symbolisme et Âmes primitives*, et d'innombrables articles. (On trouvera une description rapide de l'exposition dans les *Nouvelles littéraires* du 20 juin).¹

On célébra aussi le tricentenaire de Boileau, que M. André Thérive, le critique du *Temps*, vengea à plusieurs occasions des "étreintements" traditionnels; il y eut banquet, à Passy, le 19 novembre (avec menu du *Repas ridicule*), et messe, le 20 novembre, à Saint-Germain-des-Près, où reposent les restes du grand homme.

Quand même il semble établi (selon M. Lancaster)² que *le Cid* ne fut représenté qu'en janvier 1937, la France a observé la date traditionnelle de 1936 pour cet autre glorieux tricentenaire; dès le début de l'année M. Rocher, dans ses remarquables matinées classiques du jeudi et du samedi, au Vieux Colombier, a attiré un nombreux public à sa présentation du *Cid*, tandis que le Théâtre de l'Odéon consacrait la première semaine de décembre à Corneille. La représentation de la pièce était précédée par la récitation de *L'Examen de Conscience de Corneille*, par Aug. Villeroy: hommage à Corneille dit par l'acteur J. Squinquel. Parmi les publications suscitées par cet anniversaire citons seulement un *Corneille et Richelieu* par L. Batiffol, une *Vie intime de Corneille* par A. Le Corbeiller (que la critique place à côté

¹ On sait que l'on a pu visiter, fin 1936 et début de 1937, à New-York, une Exposition du Surréalisme! M. Walter P. Chrysler y offrait à la curiosité du public, au "Musée d'Art moderne," les collections qu'il avait acquises et qui se composent surtout de manuscrits, premières éditions, tableaux et dessins surprenants, enfin souvenirs divers ayant appartenu à M. Solomon, Paul Éluard (un des plus actifs des Dadaïstes venus ensuite au Surréalisme) et à Camille Dausse. . . . Y aura-t-il dans 50 ans une "Exposition Dada" à la Bibliothèque Nationale? (Cette Exposition du Surréalisme visitera d'autres grandes villes, Philadelphie, Chicago, etc.)

² Voir *Modern Language Journal*, vol. xxi, no. 4 (January, 1937), pp. 227-230.

de Dorchain dont l'appréciation littéraire de Corneille est depuis longtemps classique), et un *Plaisir à Corneille*, de beaux extraits et des pages admirables par J. Schlumberger.

Un événement à ne pas passer sous silence est la retraite de M. Émile Fabre de la direction du Théâtre Français au 1^{er} octobre, et son remplacement par Édouard Bourdet (le célèbre auteur de *la Prisonnière*, du *Sexe faible*, etc.). Les critiques furieuses de ces dernières années vont-elles enfin cesser? On notera que M. Bourdet est flanqué de trois hommes de théâtre émérites pour le seconder dans sa tâche: ils monteront à tour certaines pièces; ce sont Copeau, Jouvet, Baty. (Pour compléter la réorganisation, Fr. Porché suggérerait encore la suppression du comité de lecture, le rôle de la Comédie Française n'étant pas de représenter des pièces nouvelles.) Très courtois, M. Bourdet a donné comme inauguration de son règne la célèbre pièce de son prédécesseur *La Rabouilleuse* (tirée du *Ménage de Garçon*, par Balzac).

Un buste de Baudelaire a été inauguré Boulevard St. Germain, entre les n^{os} 145 et 147; tandis que la Société des Gens de Lettres (où M. Vignaud a remplacé M. Rageot à la présidence) propose aujourd'hui de racheter le buste de Balzac par Rodin—ce même buste qu'elle avait refusé d'accepter il y a quarante ans—et de le mettre à la place de celui de Falguière.

Enfin signalons une grande discussion qui s'est élevée à propos d'une proposition de décret par M. Jean Zay (Ministre de l'Instruction Publique sous le Ministère Blum), de réduire à dix ans la durée des traités entre éditeurs et auteurs; la majorité des éditeurs sont opposés au changement; quelques-uns le considèrent comme acceptable. On trouvera des détails sur cette campagne, pour et contre, dans *L'Intransigeant* depuis le 8 septembre et dans *les Nouvelles littéraires*. [Il est possible que cette loi ait des répercussions sérieuses sur les éditeurs de textes français pour les classes américaines.]

Poésie.—Aucune nouvelle étoile n'est apparue au ciel de la poésie; mais on a volontiers relu des poèmes déjà célèbres: voir *l'Anthologie des poètes de la Nouvelle Revue Française*, avec morceaux de Péguy, Proust, Carco, MacOrlan, . . . Valéry; la "Préface" est écrite par ce dernier: "curieux mélange de l'esprit du *Discours de la Méthode* et de divagations dans le style de Mallarmé" (dit bien M. Richard, dans la *Revue de France*). Voir aussi le *Livre de la Pléiade*, un florilège d'une pléiade moderne: Mad. de Noailles, Ch. Derennes, Joachim Casquet, Paul Valéry, Paul Mazade, Xavier de Magellan, et Pierre Camo; ces noms dispensent de commentaires. Et c'est ici le lieu de rappeler que Pierre Camo, le dernier nommé, fut le récipiendaire du "Grand Prix de Littérature" de l'Académie Française; il a publié en 1936 un volume *Poésies*, où l'on retrouve quelques-unes des perles de ses recueils précédents *Livre de regrets*, *Heptaméron poétique*, etc.; ayant vécu longtemps à Tananarive (Madagascar) sa poésie rappelle par certains côtés celle de Leconte de Lisle. Le "Grand Prix de Poésie" de

l'Académie fut attribué à Francis Bernouard, pour *Franchise militaire* (qui évoque la guerre dans la Somme, en Picardie, en Champagne, à Verdun, etc.). Les lauréats de la Maison de Poésie (fondation Émile Blémont) sont en 1936: Léon Bocquet, "Prix Petitdidier" (15,000 francs)—toujours attribué pour des œuvres de tendances spiritualistes. L. Bocquet a publié entre autres *Évocations de Flandre*, *Les Cygnes noirs*, *La Lumière d'Hellas*, *Crucifixions*; "Prix E. Blémont": Alexandre Guinle, pour *Visage de France*; "Prix Verlaine": Nicolas Beauvuin (couronné par l'Académie en 1935) pour *Les Dieux-Cygnes*—ce sont les dieux de la Grèce; "Prix Edgar Poë" (toujours réservé à un étranger): Mme Jacqueline Francœur, une Canadienne, pour *Aux Sources claires*.

Citons maintenant—on ne peut pas tout citer: Paul Fort, *L'Arlequin de Plomb*, dans la série des *Ballades Françaises* (la fantaisie aujourd'hui a des ailes de plomb); des *Poésies inédites* de P. J. Toulet, avec le livre de Jacques Boulenger *P. J. Toulet au bar et à la poste*; Léon Larguier (le nouvel élu à l'Académie Goncourt), *Les Ombres*; Jean Royère, *Orchestration* (virtuosité rythmique); Tristan Derème, qui continue ses fantaisies poétiques du *Poisson rouge* en 1935 par *L'Escargot bleu*. Bien connus sont aussi les noms de Ad. Ferrière, qui donne des sonnets classiques dans *La Forge de l'Esprit*; Xavier de Magallon, *Le Livre des Ombres* (série de pièces recueillies de diverses revues et évoquant le souvenir d'un fils perdu à la guerre); F. P. Alibert, *Mirages*; Thérèse Aubray, *Derrière la nuit*. Eusèbe de Bremond d'Ars chante dans un esprit très catholique *L'Étoile sévère*. Jean Lebrau, au contraire, trahit un esprit de révolte dans *D'une amère Flore* (coll. Zodiaque). Alfred Droin dans *Songe de la Terre* se place sous le patronage de Baudelaire. C'est encore, en cette année 1936, Paul Éluard qui tient fort haut le drapeau du Dadaïsme ou Surréalisme en poésie avec deux recueils, *Facile* et *Les Yeux fertiles*; il préface en outre le volume d'une disciple Valentine Penrose, *Herbe à la Lune*; enfin il faut mentionner un court traité *À la Recherche d'une Poésie nouvelle, Essai sur le Surréalisme*, par M. Tresch (éd. Franco-belge). La tentative la plus originale de l'année paraît être celle d'André Mary, le fondateur de ce qu'on a appelé "l'école gallicane": ses recueils de 1936 sont *Le Livre nocturne* et *Poèmes*; l'idée de M. Mary est de renouveler le langage poétique sans tomber dans des vocables et des images cryptiques comme p. ex. Apollinaire; il s'agit de remonter à la Renaissance, à son vocabulaire pittoresque et à ses rythmes charmants; il faut d'ailleurs être cultivé pour entendre ces vers et ces termes (la grande sauve=sylve, forêt; gaboïs=du "gab" des compagnons de Charlemagne, etc.) M. Thérive prétend, dans un article fort bien fait (*Le Temps*, 6 février, 1936), qu'A. Mary essaye de faire pour la langue d'Oïl ce que Mistral avait fait pour la langue d'Oc, ou Provençal.

Pierre Pascal, qui avait attiré l'attention sur son talent en 1935 par une *Ode civique* ou ode triomphale pour Mussolini, a donné en 1936 un *Péan naval* pour célébrer la naissance du croiseur cuirassé *Dunkerque*.

Pour quelques indications supplémentaires relatives à la poésie ou à des poètes, voir notre rubrique "Histoire littéraire."

Le Théâtre.—Il a été fait mention déjà de la réorganisation de la Comédie Française et du tricentenaire du *Cid*. Quant au point de vue de la production, l'année 1936 n'a pas été particulièrement brillante; aucun talent nouveau ne s'est révélé. Le succès de Bernstein avec *Le Cœur* s'est confirmé en janvier; c'est l'éternel triangle, mais le mari réussit à reprendre sa femme qui menaçait de l'abandonner pour l'ami de la maison. *Le Napoléon unique* par Paul Raynal (accepté au Théâtre Français, repris, redemandé, enfin donné à la Porte St. Martin) est, comme les autres pièces du maître, surtout en dialogues; sauf pour un brillant premier acte, le public est resté froid; il s'agit du divorce de l'Empereur. Denys Amiel dans *La Femme en Fleur* conte l'aventure d'un jeune homme de 29 ans qui se défiance pour devenir l'amant de la mère qui est encore . . . "en fleur." Stève Passeur n'a jamais aimé les situations simples; dans *Le Témoin*, deux amants se disputent dans un hôtel; elle se tue; la propriétaire console le jeune homme; ils voyagent, mais quand ils reviennent dans la maison du suicide le jeune homme se suicide à son tour. H. R. Lenormand dans la *Folle du Ciel* (jouée par les Pitoëff) rappelle un peu le drame Ibséen: au Spitzberg un chasseur rencontre une mouette qu'un Troll a métamorphosé en femme; ils s'aiment; le chasseur ne peut plus tuer d'oiseaux; mais un jour la passion de la chasse est plus forte; l'épouse redevient mouette et s'envole; le chasseur la retrouve en Norvège chez un oiseleur; il achète l'oiseau et les deux souffrent l'agonie d'être si près l'un de l'autre et de ne pouvoir s'aimer; le Troll raille et plaint leur folie. Quelques succès de comédie: Michel Duran, *Trois, Six, Neuf*, une fantaisie remplie de péripéties drôles d'un couple qui s'aime, se sépare, se reprend. Également un succès de rire: Pierre Chaîne, *L'Heure H.*, où l'on s'égaie comme au Palais Royal, mais non pas au sujet de l'amour; il s'agit de satire des mœurs politiques et sociales. Marcel Achard (l'auteur de *Jean de la Lune*) retrouve le succès avec *Noix de Coco*, où un brave marchand de chaussures épouse une jeune femme aux airs pudiques qui se trouve avoir été une petite courtisane avec laquelle il avait un jour mené joyeuse vie. André Birabeau dans *Dame Nature* est à la fois comique et humain; deux gosses, fille de 16 ans et garçon de 14, ont un enfant et leur surprise naïve, avec les conséquences, fournissent la matière de la pièce. *Le Fiston*, du même auteur, fils et papa en présence, eut moins de succès. L'année se termina sur le franc succès d'Édouard Bourdet (le nouveau directeur de la Comédie Française, mais qui, pour cette raison, ne pourra pas y voir ses pièces présentées): *Fric-Frac*, avec V. Boucher dans le premier rôle, met en scène un candide entraîné par une rouée qui sait admirablement jouer l'innocente, dans un "fric-frac" (un cambriolage avec effraction); il voit trop tard dans quelle affaire il se trouve mêlé; le dénouement n'est pas catastrophique. Citons aussi le *Voyage à Biarritz*, un acte, de J. Sarmant, au Théâtre Français. Sacha Guitry a deux pièces, *Geneviève*, où il mon-

tre un avocat qui est surpris de trouver en la femme qu'il est appelé à accuser sa propre fille; il plaidera avec une telle férocité qu'il vaudra à son enfant la pitié du jury; mais il perd ainsi son affection à jamais. L'autre pièce—qui est la centième de Sacha Guitry—est une amusante farce sur *Le Mot de Cambronne*: la femme du fameux soldat à qui personne ne veut dire le "mot" si célèbre et qui l'apprend finalement par hasard de la bouche de sa servante.

Fort discuté fut le *Bolivar* de Jules de Supervielle, avec musique de D. Milhaud, pièce à grand spectacle exaltant le libérateur de la Colombie, lequel meurt en regrettant de n'avoir pas réellement vécu, vécu la vie *sentimentale*. La guerre menaçante n'a pas été ignorée au théâtre, et peut-être le succès de Giraudoux, *La Guerre de Trois n'aura pas lieu*, n'est-il point étranger à ces nouvelles tentatives; Maurice Rostand présente (Théâtre Pigalle) une scène schématisée, *Europe*: une ferme allemande, une ferme française, une plage anglaise, un pavillon italien; personnages allégoriques; la guerre va éclater; alors Sainte Thérèse de Lisieux va trouver le chef de la nation qui voulait attaquer la France et, comme Sainte-Geneviève l'avait fait pour Attila, elle sauve son pays; une réconciliation générale est le fruit des prières de la sainte. Henri Bauche dans *Taia* transporte sur la scène le drame de Sarajevo, en 1914, d'après un roman de t'Serstevens. Cela n'a pas découragé de nouvelles tentatives. Certains critiques ont voulu voir dans *Les Vaches maigres* de René Aubert (en avril) la révélation d'un nouveau talent; la pièce est une attaque féroce de la société moderne où aujourd'hui règne le chaos. Il faut mentionner aussi ici qu'une association "Le Bélier," fondée par MM. Villiers et Ambrière, a loué en avril le Théâtre de l'Étoile pour y faire représenter *Spartacus* de Marcel Ollivier (c'est l'épisode de la révolte des esclaves qui momentanément mit en sérieux danger l'existence de Rome aux derniers jours de la République); et qu'au 14 juillet, sous le Ministère Blum, fut donnée une représentation populaire du *Danton* par Romain Rolland. On discuta, dans les dernières semaines de l'année, la pièce de Leo Ferrero (mort comme on sait à la fleur de l'âge dans un accident d'automobile) *Angelica*, une curieuse satire du fascisme.

Les opinions furent divisées sur un drame en vers de Fernand Gregh, *Les Amants romantiques*, donné à l'Odéon; le sujet en est les fameuses amours de George Sand et Alfred de Musset; c'est davantage un poème dialogué qu'une pièce de théâtre. Non moins discutée fut la tentative de Baty de mettre en scènes *Madame Bovary*; ce sont des tranches du roman juxtaposées et on se demandait s'il n'était pas fait injustice à Flaubert qui, lui-même, avait déclaré que son récit n'était pas adaptable au théâtre. Faut-il rappeler deux échecs: Roger Vitrac, *Le Camelot*, et E. Gerber, *Halte, où allez-vous?* pièces d'actualité.

On a répété en juin, 1936, *le Mystère de la Passion* d'Arnoul Gréban sur le parvis de Notre Dame à Paris, comme en 1935; et aussi, quelques jours

plus tard, sur le parvis de la célèbre église de Verzelay. M. Gustave Cohen de la Sorbonne continue son œuvre propagande pour la connaissance du théâtre médiéval; avec ses élèves il a organisé un "Festival Rutebeuf" en janvier; les pièces se donnaient à l'amphithéâtre de la Sorbonne. D'autre part, deux jeunes auteurs, Jacques Dapoigny et Julien Bertheau, ont fondé la compagnie théâtrale "Le Relais" dans le but de ressusciter des pièces que la postérité semble avoir reniées, mais qui offrent en tous cas un intérêt historique; *le Docteur de Verre*, par Quinault, fut la première production.

La tentative de Baty de mettre en tableaux *Madame Bovary* a été citée déjà; il faut ajouter que Dullin a été plus heureux en représentant à l'Atelier une adaptation du *Faiseur*, roman peu réussi de Balzac, mais dont le récit adapté pour la scène par Mlle S. Jollivet amusa beaucoup.

Ibsen jouit d'un regain de popularité en France comme en Amérique. Trois pièces américaines eurent un grand nombre de représentations: *Les Innocentes* (*The Children's Hour*, adaptation par Bernheim); *Tu ne m'échapperas pas*—suite de *Tessa*, de Mme Kennedy (adaptation par Sabatier); et *Trois Hommes sur un Cheval* (adaptation Achard).

Publications intéressant le théâtre: Éd. Champion, *La Comédie Française, année 1935*; Émile Fabre, *Le Théâtre*; Mad. Dussane, *Un Comédien nommé Molière*; R. Benjamin, *Molière*; deux pièces de Pagnol: *Merlusse* et *Cigalon*.

Le Roman.—Il y a continuation de "romans fleuves." Jules Romains dans ses *Hommes de Bonne Volonté*, en est toujours à la crise mondiale qui aboutit à la guerre: vol. XI, *Recours à l'Abîme*; vol. XII, *Les Créatures*. Jacques Chadourne en est au vol. III et probablement dernier de ses *Destinées Sentimentales* (I. *La Femme de Jean Barney*; II. *Pauline*; III. *Porcelaine de Limoges*): un père, ancienne école, et qui songe avant tout à livrer de bonne marchandise; un fils, nouvelle école, communiste, et qui ne songe qu'à la question sociale, données compliquées par une histoire de divorce du père où il a lui-même cédé aux mœurs modernes. Robert Honnert qui avait publié en 1935 *Francis de Chavières*, un jeune homme de la haute société qui avait trouvé l'amour chez une femme du peuple, continue dans *Madame Étienne Métraz*: les deux époux viennent demeurer à Paris, et surmontent les difficultés de l'adaptation à la vie dans la classe du faubourg Montmartre; ils étendent même leur influence humanitaire avec l'aide d'un banquier gagné à leurs idées. René Behaine continue son grand roman sur *l'Histoire d'une Société*: son volume XI porte le titre *Ô Peuple infortuné!* Enfin Roger Martin du Gard a ajouté une septième partie à sa série des *Thibault*, sous le titre *L'Été*, trois volumes qui donnent une peinture de l'Europe depuis l'attentat de Sarajevo aux premiers jours de la guerre.

Il faut tirer de pair quelques romans qui, soit par leur excellence soit pour d'autres raisons, ont retenu particulièrement l'attention: Georges Bernanos (l'auteur de *Sous le Soleil de Satan*), *Journal d'un Curé de Campagne*, n'a guère reçu que des éloges pour ce récit de la vie d'un modeste

curé d'une paroisse perdue du Pas-de-Calais, vie de privations, vie d'apôtre, et qui se trouve mêlée incidemment à un drame de famille se déroulant dans la demeure du châtelain de l'endroit. Au contraire, peu de romans ont été aussi discutés que *Mort à Crédit* par Louis-Ferdinand Céline. L'auteur semblait avoir épuisé la franchise sordide dans *Voyage au bout de la Nuit*; il paraît s'être surpassé cependant, dans ces récits de son enfance et de sa jeunesse: "de la littérature anti-littéraire" dit M. Richard dans la *Revue de Paris*; du Rabelais, a-t-on voulu affirmer: oui, mais du Rabelais "étriqué, amer, zonier, clinique, forain. . ."³ Une autre œuvre qui suscita de nombreux commentaires est celle de Henri de Montherlant; il s'agit d'une trilogie dont la première partie avait paru en 1935, *Jeunes Filles*: Costa, un écrivain, est aimé par une femme, Andrée, pour laquelle il ne peut éprouver aucun sentiment; mais il se refuse aux procédés blessants; c'est une terrible épreuve pour les deux; finalement elle propose qu'il l'aime pendant deux mois et qu'elle s'éloigne pour toujours après. Dans le second roman, *Pitié pour la femme*, le héros se révèle plus décidé; il se débarrasse d'Andrée, mais il rencontre Solange, une "refoulée," très belle et à laquelle il s'attache d'abord pour sa beauté; puis il s'aperçoit qu'il y a autre chose, qu'elle lui est supérieure; alors, il l'aime vraiment mais craignant une chaîne, il agit comme si elle lui était indifférente. Le troisième roman sera—?⁴ On peut aussi compter comme livre à grand succès, *Les Beaux Quartiers*, par Louis Aragon; qui a obtenu, en décembre, le "Prix Renaudot": c'est un second récit paraissant sous le titre général *Le Monde réel*, et dont le premier était *Les Cloches de Bâle* (voir Année littéraire, 1935).⁵ C'est un tableau de la société française à la veille de la guerre; l'action se passe à Serianne; on retrouve le même grouillement socialiste et communiste contre ceux des "Beaux Quartiers" que dans *Les Cloches de Bâle*, parfois les mêmes personnages politiques; tout ce monde viendra à Paris, qui sert de "melting-pot" aux idées sur la société future. Le "Prix Goncourt" a été attribué (le 9 décembre) à *L'Empreinte du Dieu*, par Maxence Van der Meersch; celui-ci remplit deux des principaux desiderata des Goncourt; quoique pas à son premier roman, il est un jeune (29 ans), et son livre est d'inspiration nettement réaliste, peut-être faudrait-il dire même populiste; l'action de la première partie est placée dans le pays flamand, près d'Ypres, dans le quartier des baraques (des "zones" comme on dirait en France); la seconde partie à Anvers. On y voit l'ascendant exercé par un magnifique specimen de l'espèce humaine, Domitien van Bergen, sur deux femmes subjuguées: l'une sa femme Wilfrida, et une

³ Il a fallu que l'éditeur du livre, M. Denoël, écrive une brochure pour défendre son client; il y oppose les critiques les uns aux autres, l'un admirant telle scène, l'autre une autre, et il trouve ainsi des éloges pour chacune des scènes incriminées de ci ou de là.

⁴ Un petit scandale s'est rattaché à tout cela: Andrée, paraît-il, existe; mais une fausse Andrée par contre serait là pour réclamer l'honneur!

⁵ *Modern Language Journal*, vol. xx, no. 6 (March, 1936), pp. 323-332.

autre Karelina qu'il défend contre un mari brutal lequel cependant le tuera. L'opinion générale de la critique est que l'étude documentaire des milieux, bien plus que les épisodes du roman, ont valu à l'auteur sa haute distinction. Enfin signalons encore le roman historique de P. Benoit et Claude Farrère, *L'Homme qui était trop grand*, et qui est un grande fresque historique des XVI^e et XVII^e siècles, sous Henri III, Philippe II et Henri IV. L'homme qui était "trop grand," c'était le Duc de Guise.

On peut citer sans commentaires une série de romans sortis de la plume d'auteurs célèbres et dont la manière est connue depuis longtemps: Henri de Régnier, *Moi, elle et lui* (un père voit sa maîtresse l'abandonner, car il devient trop vieux, pour son fils; celui-ci à son tour trouve la dame trop mûre); H. Bordeaux, *L'Intruse* (la course à l'abîme d'un ménage désaxé après la guerre); P. Benoit, *La Dame de l'Ouest* (femme fatale; au Colorado), et *St. Jean d'Acre*; Gaston Chérau, *Le Petit Dagrello* (une enfance malheureuse, histoire dont la trame générale est empruntée à la réalité); J.-H. Rosny, jeune, *Une Reine des Rues* (roman de volupté); Ed. Jaloux, *La Chute d'Icare*; Léo Larguier (nouvel élu à l'Académie Goncourt), un roman historique *Nicole Flamel, Faiseur d'Or*, et *L'An Mille*; E. Pérochon, *À l'Ombre des Ailes* (aviation); Marcel Aymé, *Le Moulin de la Sourdis* (genre populiste). Un romancier dont la renommée grandit est Georges Siménon: *Les Demoiselles de Concarneau* (histoire dans un port de Bretagne) ont souligné son succès; il a encore publié *Long Cours*, et *Le Quartier nègre* (une lamentable histoire de la déchéance physique et morale d'un Français à Panama). J. Blanzet, *Septembre* (drame de jalousie, très remarqué); José Germain, *Les Enfants perdus* (avec un dénouement moins triste que le titre; Louis Artus, *Mirliton*, une fantaisie, sorti de conte de fée de Mirliton et Jolie; R. Francis, dans *Les Mariés de Paris*, dit les grandes amours d'un grand timide. Ph. Amiguet donne *Race de Calvin*; Joseph Peyre (prix Goncourt, 1935), *L'Homme de Choc*; et Ch. Silvestre, *Démon du Soir* (évidemment inspiré par *Le Démon de Midi* de Bourget; c'est le récit d'un amour tardif et dramatique. Les histoires sombres, ou au moins pessimistes, sont aussi nombreuses qu'en 1935: c'est Julien Green, avec *Minuit*; c'est Fr. Mauriac, avec *Les Anges noirs*; c'est Jean Vignaud, avec *L'Ange du treizième Jour* (en Algérie; l'ange sauveur qui arrive trop tard; on y trouve un pessimisme presque aussi âcre que chez Céline); c'est Marcel Jouhaudaux, qui, dans *Chaminadou*, donne une série de portraits féroces; c'est Georges Normandy, *Les Cœurs morts-nés* (qui désespère absolument de la bonté de hommes); c'est Ch. Plisner (un des auteurs souvent nommés pour les grands prix de fin d'année), dans son gros roman *Mariages* (cynisme stendhalien); c'est Robert Brasillach, *Le Marchand d'Oiseaux*, un roman, du reste, charmant, mais qui cherche la corruption jusque chez les enfants; c'est encore le populiste André Thérive, dans *Fils du Jour* (qui donne modernisé et transporté dans le monde populaire et bourgeois le thème de *l'Éducation sentimentale* de Flaubert); c'est Henri Poydenot, un nouveau

venu, fort loué par la critique, qui raconte dans *La Prière au bout du Wharf* une adolescence déçue et meurtrie; c'est Pierre Audiat, dans *La Porte du Fond* (qui donne les mémoires d'un fou rappelant Nau, *Les Forces ennemies*, P. Hervieu, *l'Inconnu*, Maupassant, *Le Horla*); c'est enfin George Reyer (dans une satire d'ailleurs alerte et mouvementée, qui rappelle un peu *Le Diable boiteux* de Lesage), *Le Magasin des Travestis*. Moins sombres: Maurice Bedel, *Les Lauriers d'Apollon*; P. Villetard, *Le Jeu du Mariage*.

Les romans cherchant un peu particulièrement un couleur d'actualité ne sont pas très optimistes non plus: tels Émile Henriot, *Tout va finir*—discussion d'un jeune avec un homme de 50 ans, et où sont énumérés toutes les occasions perdues ces dernières années pour ramener le monde à l'état normal; André Billy, *Quel Homme es-tu?* une sorte de roman freudien mais sans vocabulaire prétentieux; récit de passion refoulée (l'aventure de René qui se multiplie, au moins en littérature); puis, nous avons Jean Cassou, *Les Massacres de Paris*—la Commune qui sert de fond à un épisode romanesque; citons encore un "roman inédit" de J. Kessel, *Une Balle perdue*, qui se passe à Barcelone en 1934; et Paul Vialar, *J'avais un Camarade* (dans la Légion étrangère, il y a cent ans). Parfois revient le thème de la grande guerre, surtout dans *Lena* par R. Vercel, qui comme dans *Conan* (1935) peint la guerre dans toute son horreur, et dans le récit frappant que Joseph Jolinon met dans la bouche de *Fesse-Mathieu l'Anonyme*; ce Fesse-Mathieu raconte à la veillée à son fils—et à la manière de Jolinon—l'avant-guerre, la guerre elle-même, les causes de la guerre, les responsabilités, la paix, le monde nouveau. Robert de Saint-Jean dans *Le Feu Sacré* raconte l'histoire d'une mère qui, tout au souvenir de son enfant sacrifié à la guerre, néglige celui qui est vivant.

C. F. Ramuz publie en France *Derborence* (déjà publié en Suisse en 1935); c'est un récit d'un cataclysme alpestre qui rappelle beaucoup le roman qui avait appelé l'attention sur lui d'abord, *La grande Peur dans la Montagne*. Fr. Miomandre dit spirituellement et avec pas mal d'humour narquois un épisode fondé sur le légendaire *Zombie*, un mort qui, par l'art d'un magicien africain, revient à une demi-existence pour être domestique dans un ménage.

Des romans de mer et d'aventures: Henri Poydenot, (cité plus haut); E. Peisson, *Le Courrier de la Mer Blanche*; Pierre Frondaie, *Port-Arthur* (aventure d'espionnage); René Jouglet, *La Ville perdue* (grand roman d'aventure aux Philippines); Eugène Dulincourt *À la belle Flore* (amour malgache d'un blanc et d'une noire); Constantin-Weyer, *Telle qu'elle était de son Vivant* (histoire d'une femme admirable qui doit sacrifier son bonheur; une partie de l'histoire se passe au Canada); le même auteur, *La Demoiselle de la mort* (c'est le nom d'un pic des Alpes où l'homme sort rarement vainqueur de la lutte avec la nature). Dans le domaine de la fantaisie pure: Henri Duvernois, *L'Homme qui s'est retrouvé* (genre Jules Verne ou Wells); J. Spitz, *Évadés de l'an 4000*. Ici aussi le curieux récit

situé dans la forêt de Gabon, par G. Trial, *Le roman*—non-romancé, prétend l'auteur—*d'un Gorille*.

Parmi les romans sortis de la plume de femmes: Louise Hervieu, *Sangs* (histoire lamentable de la déchéance d'une famille paysanne), qui a gagné pour son auteur le Prix Femina (8 décembre); Paule Régnier (l'auteur de *l'Abbaye d'Évolène*), *Cherchez la Joie*; Mme Nemirowski, *Jézabel*; Marie Le Franc, *La Randonnée passionnée* (dans les grands bois); Geneviève Fauconnier, *Les Étangs doubles* (sombre histoire d'un crime demeuré longtemps caché); Monique de Saint-Hélier qui avait fort bien réussi dans *Bois mort* en 1934, n'a pas reçu les mêmes éloges pour *Cavalier de paille* écrit dans la même veine; Germaine Acremant, *Fortune rapide*; Germaine Beaumont, *La longue Nuit*.

Ce qu'on a appelé la "renaissance de la nouvelle" continue comme en 1935; citons: Pierre-Jean Jouve, *La Scène capitale* (deux nouvelles freudiennes, *La Victime* et *Dans les années profondes*—la scène capitale est celle qui se passe quand le "libido" devient irrésistible); Alex. Arnoud, *Ki Pro Ko*; Francis Miomandre, *Le Cabinet Chinois* (trois contes); R. Vercel, *Rencontrées sur l'Épave*; Tristan Rémy, *Faubourg Saint-Antoine* (deux nouvelles, *L'Apprenti* et *La Fille*—le volume qui a gagné le "Prix populiste"); Félix Chadourne, *Jason* (cinq nouvelles dans les Tropiques, et fort remarquées); Ignace Legrand, *Héry* (nouvelles de jeunes qui se cherchent). Le volume du Belge, Jean Tousseul, *La Croix de Bure*, contient une série de légendes du pays de l'auteur.

Divers.—Il faut signaler une volume de guerre qui n'est pas un roman et qui a été acclamé comme un chef-d'œuvre: Louis Guiral, *Secteur d'attaques*, contenant deux récits. Le livre de Ph. Hériat, *Miroirs*, donne des tableaux de victimes de la guerre où se trouvent mêlés du reste des éléments de sensualité qui sont bien étrangers au sujet. Ch. Eckert, dans *Jacques Bonhomme*, donne des souvenirs de guerre avec une intention très nette de condamner celle-ci.

Les volumes avec matière autobiographique continuent à abonder: M. Barrès, vol. x de *Mes Cahiers*; René Bazin, *Étapes de ma vie*; Mme Colette, *Mes Apprentissages*, avec sous-titre *Ce que Claudine n'a pas dit* (c'est à dire ce que Claudine n'a pas dit du ménage Willy et où il y a des révélations curieuses sur la société dans laquelle se mouvait l'artiste Willy; autant que possible ces mémoires sont sans fiel); Fr. Carco, *Montmartre à 20 ans*; Roger Dorgelès, *Quand j'étais Montmartois*, souvenirs un peu arrangés; tel est le cas aussi du nouveau volume de *Une Destinée*, par Louis Bertrand, *Hippolyte Porte-couronnes* (qui continue Jean Perbal, *La nouvelle Éducation sentimentale*). Bien sombre est *La grande Menterie, journal d'un Chômeur*, par André Saurnet. Jean Guéhenno, *Jeunesse de France* (toujours communiste, mais par évolution, pas révolution). Il faut mettre aussi dans la classe des livres de souvenirs: A. Gide, *Nouvelles pages de Journal*; et le très discuté *Retour de l'U.R.S.S.*, où l'auteur retire beaucoup de son admiration

pour les soviets; P. Claudel, *Figures et Paraboles, Essais de Jeunesse*, ses affections (comme Mallarmé) et ses haines (comme Goethe); R. Alain, *Histoire de mes Pensées*; et les souvenirs d'un éditeur célèbre, Grasset, *Commentaires*. P. Valéry, *Variations III* sur sujets des plus divers. Voici encore Alfred Dreyfus, *Souvenirs et Correspondance*, par son fils; et Léon Blum, *Souvenirs de l'Affaire*. Une sorte de testament philosophique de Jacques Bainville, *Les Dictateurs*. Blaise Cendrars raconte la vie d'Al Jenkins dans *Hors la Loi, Souvenirs d'un Outlaw*. Maeterlinck continue ses méditations philosophiques dans *Le Sablier*, et dans *L'Ombre des Ailes*.

Il y a des volumes d'histoire se rapportant volontiers à la littérature, comme G. Truc, *Madame de Montespan*; H. de Régnier, *Madame Récamier*; Fr. Porché, *Portrait de Tolstoï*; des livres de voyage, comme Fr. De Croisset, *Le Dragon blessé* (chine); Luc Durtain, *Le Globe sous le Bras*; Marc Chadourne, *Extrême Orient* (suite à *Extrême Occident*). Enfin sous cette rubrique mettons: Henri-Robert, *Grands Procès de l'histoire*, vol. x (dernier volume, puisque l'auteur vient de mourir); Louis Gillet (récemment élu à l'Académie) *La Cathédrale vivante*; Alf. Machard, *La Marmaille* (l'auteur est célèbre depuis la guerre pour ses charmants portraits d'enfants par l'image et par le récit).

Un des livres les plus discutés de l'année fut la *Vie de Jésus*, par F. Mauriac,—un Jésus austère et même sévère plutôt que le doux Jésus de la tradition.

Histoire et critique littéraires.—L'Académie a décidé (janvier) de préparer une édition abrégée du *Dictionnaire* dont la 8^{me} éd. vient de paraître, en 1935. Ferd. Brunot continue la publication de la monumentale *Histoire de la Langue Française*.

Moyen-âge: Gust. Cohen donne une édition du *Jeu d'Adam et Ève, Mystère du XII^e siècle*, avec musique de Chailly; Erik Boman en donne une de deux *Miracles de Gautier de Coincy*, et Garnier une des *Quinze Joyes de Mariage*. Pour le XVI^e siècle: on trouve des renseignements sur Montaigne dans P. Barrère, *La vie intellectuelle du Périgord*. XVII^e siècle: Le Corbeiller, *Vie intime de Corneille* (déjà cité); *Correspondance de Descartes*, Vol. I, dans la grande édition des *Œuvres* par Tannery et Adam; deux nouveaux volumes de la magistrale *History of French Dramatic Literature* par H. C. Lancaster (Part III, *The Period of Molière*); G. Michaut, *La Bruyère*; Pascal, édition des *Pensées* annotée par Massis; XVIII^e siècle: Voltaire, *L'Ingénu*, éd. par Wm. Richard Jones (Droz); Roger Tisserand, *L'Académie de Dijon, 1740-1793*, et *Les Concurrents de Rousseau à l'Académie de Dijon en 1754*. E. Faguet, *André Chénier* (vol. x de *l'Histoire de la Poésie au XVIII^e siècle*; posthume); P. Dimoff, *La Vie et l'Œuvre d'André Chénier, 1762-1790*, 2 vols. (très important). A. Tarabout, *Le Vrai Visage de Restif de la Bretonne*. XIX^e siècle: Chateaubriand continue à attirer les érudits: Maurice Levaillant, *Chateaubriand et Madame Récamier et les Mémoires d'Outre-tombe, d'après des Documents inédits*; et par le même:

Deux Livres de Mémoires d'Outre-tombe, Tome I, *Séjour à Venise*; Tome II, *Madame Récamier* (tout cela très important); Jean Dyssord, *Les Amours du Vicomte de Chateaubriand* (en série dans *Les Nouvelles Littéraires* depuis le 4 juillet); Prince Jacques de Broglie, *Madame de Staël et sa Cour au Château de Chaumont*; L. Royer, *Bibliographie stendhalienne*, 1934-35; H. Guillemin, *Le Jocelyn de Lamartine* (très documenté [800 pages]); F. Ségur, *L'Académie des Jeux Floraux et le Romantisme*, 1818-24, 2 vols.; Sainte-Beuve, *Correspondance générale*, par Bonnerot, nouveaux volumes; V. Giraud, *Vie secrète de Sainte-Beuve*; M. Allem, *Sainte-Beuve et Volupté* (Coll. Grands év. litt.).—ces deux derniers reprenant l'affaire Adèle Hugo et Sainte-Beuve, le dernier exclusivement. Dans les publications de la Fondation V. Hugo: Gilberte Guillaume-Riche, *Le voyage de Victor Hugo en 1843 (France, Espagne, Pays-Bas)*; Maria Lévy-Deutsch, *Les Gueux chez Victor Hugo*. Notons ici une pièce en quatre actes tirée de *Quatre-vingt-treize*, par Cass et Silvaire. D. O. Evans, *Le Roman social sous la Monarchie de Juillet*. P. Dimoff, *La Genèse de Lorenzaccio* (Textes modernes); René Dumesnil, *L'Education sentimentale* (son sixième livre sur Flaubert; Coll. Grands év. litt.), et qui reçut le "Prix de la Critique" en partage égal avec Marcel Thiébaud, *Edmond About*; P. Bouvier, *La Jeunesse de H. F. Amiel*; Mary Stewart, *Vie et Œuvre d'Henri Bornier* (l'auteur de *la Fille de Roland*); Raymonde Lefèvre, *Le Mariage de Loti* (Coll. Grands év. litt.); Max Daireaux, *Villiers de l'Isle Adam* (Coll. Temps et Visages; très admiratif); V. Giraud, *Anatole France* (même collection); J. Lion, *Bibliographie d'A. France* (39 pages, chez Giraud-Badin): (pour la bibliographie relative au Symbolisme et son Cinquantenaire, voir les premières lignes de cet article); Jacques Boulenger, *Toulet au bar et à la poste*; Rosemonde Gérard, *Edmond Rostand* (l'auteur est la veuve d'E. Rostand); Jacques Madaule, *Le Drame de Paul Claudel*. Léon-Pierre Quint publie une nouvelle édition de son *Proust*, augmenté de quelques appendices importants. Le vol. VI de la *Correspondance de Proust* a paru. Amélie Fillon, *François Mauriac*.

Ajoutons: Jean Hankiss, *Défense et Illustration de la Littérature*, avec Préface par F. Baldensperger; A. Thibaudet, qu'on a surnommé "le Faguet du XX^e siècle" à cause de la fécondité de sa plume et qui mourut en avril, *Histoire de la Littérature Française de 1789 à nos jours* (Stock, 600 pages); Louis Chaigne, *Vies et Œuvres d'Écrivains, Panorama de la littérature française* (titre qui peut égarer; il s'agit de certains noms d'auteurs récents, et il y a quelques indications bibliographiques).

Événements du monde de la littérature non relatés sous les rubriques précédentes.—Académie Française: Quatre disparus: Pierre de Nolhac (31 janvier); Jacques Bainville (9 février); M. Henri-Robert (12 mai); Henri de Régnier (22 mai). Reçus: Bellessort (par M. Chaumeix, 26 mars); Cl. Farrère (par P. Benoit, 23 avril); Duhamel (par H. Bordeaux, 25 juin); Louis Gillet (par G. Goyau, 11 juin). Élus: Edm. Jaloux (remplace P.

Bourget, 2 juillet); J. Pesquidoux (remplace J. Bainville, 2 juillet); Amiral Lacaze (remplace J. Cambon), Mgr. Grente, (remplace P. Nollac), Jacques de Lacretelle (remplace H. de Régnier—tous les trois le 12 décembre). *Siège vacant*: un. *Académie Goncourt*: *Mort* de Léon Hennique (janvier). *Élu*: 28 mai, Léo Larguier, poète (*La Maison du poète*, *Les Isolements*), romancier (voir plus haut). Jean Vignaud devient président de la "Société des Gens de Lettres" en remplacement de Gaston Rageot.

On déplore la mort de: Albert Thibaudet; Gustave Kahn; Eugène Dabit (lauréat du Prix populiste); Juliette Adam (longtemps éditeur de la *Nouvelle Revue*, morte à cent ans); Antoine Meillet (le célèbre linguiste).

Quelques prix, dont quelques-uns ont été mentionnés plus haut: "Grand Prix de Littérature," Pierre Camo (poète, né à la Réunion, écrit en vers bien frappés, volontiers sur des sujets exotiques, recueils connus: *Livre des Regrets*, *Heplaméron poétique*); "Grand Prix du Roman," Bernanos, *Journal d'un Curé de Campagne*; "Prix Goncourt," Van der Meersch, *L'Empreinte du Dieu*; Prix Femina, Louise Hervieu, *Sangs*; "Prix Renaudot," Aragon, *Les beaux Quartiers*; "Prix Interallié," Laporte, *Chasse de Novembre*; "Prix de Critique littéraire," partagé entre René Dumesnil (*Éducation sentimentale*) et Marcel Thiébaud (*Edmond About*); "Prix de la Renaissance," Jean Cassou; "Prix Jean Moréas," J. P. de Ladevèze, *Sur les Balcons du Ciel*; "Prix Lasserre," X. de Magallon, pour une traduction de Virgile; "Prix Populiste," Tristan Rémy, *Faubourg St. Antoine*; "de Litt. Coloniale," Paul Fabre, *Heures d'Abéché*; "Prix Viking," La Varende, *Pays d'Ouche*; "Née," Corpechot, *Souvenirs d'un Journaliste*; "Vitet," Jules Marsan; "Prix Pierre Louys," Fr. Rezé (*La Barque aux Filles*), et Henri Remon (*Le Songe de Peitho*). Il y a eu deux "Prix Osiris" (100,000 francs): Antoine Meillet, et Géralde d'Houville (Mme Henri de Régnier).

On Compounding in German

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(Author's summary.—The evolutional trend in the compounding of particles with verbs in German is briefly discussed and, in certain border-line cases that now involve a grammatical dilemma, the probable future solution is indicated.)

FROM early childhood I still remember the vivid impression made upon my mind when I was taught, in the presence of a globe, that the earth is a sphere, half of which, bathed in sunlight, is enjoying day, while the other half, in shadow, is mantled in night. "Wouldn't it be funny," I asked, "to stand right on the dividing line and see that sharp line, with light on one side and dark on the other?" But it was promptly explained that there are no sharp lines in nature, that that "sharp line" is in fact an indefinite twilight zone. And isn't it entertaining, I think in older years, to realize, as one observes language behavior, that one is standing at a dividing line, to note that evolution is taking place before our gaze, that usage is shifting? So it is today in German, for instance, with regard to the compounding of verbs with certain prefixes, in particular the particles *hin* and *her*.

Particles of speech habitually used with verbs attach themselves as prefixes. *Als er hin sah* has long since become: *als er hinsah*; *als er auf stand* has become: *als er aufstand*. But how shall the language behave when the particle standing in front of the verb is part of a phrase which is a unit in itself?

In the expression *in die leere Luft hinaus sehen*, the *hinaus* feels a double allegiance: it is an integral part of the phrase: *in die leere Luft hinaus*, but it also feels a strong attraction toward the verb, and we become uncertain whether our infinitive shall be regarded as *sehen* or *hinaussehen*. Similarly in the clause *als sie über die Strasse daher getrippelt kam*, Eichendorff ("Taugenichts," p. 21) regarded *daher* as part of the phrase *über die Strasse daher*, whereas a writer of today might compound it with *getrippelt*.

Or consider a phrase such as *vor sich hin*, which affords a truly perplexing case. The *hin* is torn in two directions: it is an integral part of the phrase *vor sich hin*, and at the same time, the *hin* tends to attach itself as prefix to the verb. In the expression *vor sich hin sehend*, is our infinitive *sehen* or *hinsehen*? When we write *vor sich hin dösend*, shall the *hin* be attached to *dösend* (as in Erich Kästner, "Drei Männer im Schnee," p. 122), or shall it maintain its allegiance to the phrase *vor sich hin*, of which it is an integral part? Certainly when we say *ich träumte vor mich hin*, or *er brummte vor sich hin*, we are still inclined to regard our infinitives as being *träumen* and *brummen* rather than *hinträumen* and *hinbrummen*; and in the expression *er trieb die Schafe vor sich her*, no man would as yet regard the infinitive to be *hertreiben*, for the direction of the motion indicated by *hertreiben* is opposite to that expressed in the given clause. As a sheer matter of logic

(which is of course seldom enough the arbiter in language usage), if compounding takes place, the entire phrase should become the verbal prefix, the infinitives being: *vorsichhin-dösen*, *vorsichhin-sehen*, etc.

The difficulty does not arise in the spoken language, where the sentence rather than the word is the unit; it is solely one of recording. Dictionaries, grammars, and handbooks of style do not cope with this problem. The lexicographer finds himself face to face with a dilemma from which he scarcely knows how to extricate himself. "Cassell's New German-English Dictionary" (Funk and Wagnalls, 1936) *sub voce* 'vor' gives the following forms, hyphenated: *vor sich-hinlächeln*, *vor sich-hinsprechen*, indicating a closer adherence of the *hin* to the following verb than to the words *vor sich* which precede it, and attaching even the *sich* to the verb by a hyphen. (This dictionary does not, unfortunately, present *Belege*.)

We stand here at a dividing line, as it were, and witness the language in a state in which it has not yet, in certain particulars, "made up its mind" how to act. To compound, or not to compound—that is still a question; usage has a dilemma to solve. If we judge by the language-drift, we may anticipate that the printer, the lexicographer, and the grammarian of the future will use the solution indicated above, that the words *vor sich hin* will be fused, and that this compound word will become the verbal prefix (as: *vorsichhin-dösen*).

Not that we shall thus, on this point or any other, reach a state of stability and finality in the constant flux of language—evolution is as continuous, as ceaseless, as time itself!

The Teaching of Intonation in Modern Foreign Languages, with Special Reference to French

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(*Author's summary.*—Proper intonation is essential and deserves the teacher's careful attention. It can be taught successfully without interfering with the students' accomplishments in other phases of language study; on the contrary, it supplements them. A few practical suggestions are made in this article.)

THE teaching of intonation in our modern foreign language classes is a question which, undoubtedly, has not yet received due consideration from the majority of teachers of modern foreign languages. Many who have not realized its importance are still wondering whether it is really worthy of discussion. Before speaking of its helpfulness in our teaching, and of the most efficient way of teaching it, we must first recall the extent to which the difference in intonation between the foreign language and English demands serious attention.

Of course, if we discuss intonation, we must take it for granted that we are unanimously of the opinion that we should stress the use of the spoken language in our classes, and insist on a good pronunciation. One question involves the other: intonation and articulation cannot be separated.¹ Intonation, i.e., rhythm and melody, is as important a factor in the spoken language as punctuation is in the written language. It is even more than that; it is the soul of the language, the element from which the language sprang.²

Everybody knows how easy it is to realize, by the tone only, whether a person speaks to us kindly or roughly, asks us a question or gives us information, complains of a pain or expresses a feeling of joy. It is an accepted fact that we all have a peculiar melody in our speech, but while we promptly notice it in other people's conversation, we fail to realize it in our own.

There are still greater differences of intonation between people of different nationalities than between individuals or people of different provinces in a given country. French, Spanish, or German are not like a language such as Chinese, in which a single word may have several meanings, according to the pitch in which it is uttered. But, let us not forget that a different

¹ The first place is given to the teaching of intonation at the Institut de Phonétique, in Paris. See articles by Jeanne Vidon-Varney in *Modern Language Journal*, May, 1934, and *French Review*, December, 1934.

² This last point is splendidly demonstrated by various authorities. See for example Herbert Spencer (*Origin and Function of Music*), Maurice Grammont, Nyrop, Passy, Jespersen, Harold Palmer, Pierre Fouché, Bara de Tovar (*Principes généraux de la diction française*, 1933), Maria Schubiger (*The Role of Intonation in Spoken English*, 1935), etc.

intonation may entirely change the meaning of a sentence, and that these differences in English are far from resembling those in French. In most cases they are just the opposite: Americans drop their voices, while the French raise theirs, and vice versa. We shall illustrate this presently.

Now if we recognize the great difference in intonation existing between the various languages as well as the importance of this element in each of them, we have to consider the means of teaching intonation in our classes. We can make this a very pleasant task and it may provide the opportunity for some fun. It is a great factor in keeping the class alive. However, oral work must be taken seriously. Students should be made to realize its practical importance and, besides, understand that their proficiency in pronunciation and intonation will have weight in determining their grades.

To analyze intonation is not an easy matter, but the fundamental principles governing rhythm and speech-tunes of a language can be taught successfully. Speaking or reading French with a given intonation is, like many other things, merely a matter of habit. New habits can be acquired. Let us not forget that Molière himself used to drill on the various intonations he had marked above his lines.

It is hard to agree entirely with those who believe that people can acquire the right intonation of a foreign language only by going to the country where that language is spoken. The advantages of going abroad will certainly not be questioned here. However, we must take into account that, generally, natives do not correct the pronunciation, especially the intonation, of a foreigner. Even if they do, they do not accomplish the desired result very efficiently, because they do not know the technique of the process. Furthermore, they usually pretend not to notice errors. In our classes students can enjoy many of the advantages they would have abroad, and, besides, be helped in a logical and pedagogical way. Therefore we may venture to say that the average student can learn French intonation in college as well as if not better than he would in France during the same period of time without an instructor who knows what his difficulties are and just how to solve them.

We all know that few French people speak in exactly the same manner, but there are general rules. A Frenchman from the south will not speak like a Parisian or a Breton, but there are certain speech-tunes which are representative of French speech in all parts of France. It is these tunes and the rules governing them that we must teach, that we must even exaggerate sometimes, even to the point of making them a bit artificial once in a while. Never mind if the intonation thus acquired is not adequate. Our first aim must be to make students, in reading or speaking French, depart from their native intonation as soon as possible. A good, satisfactory French intonation will be developed later, little by little, without much trouble, provided that the instructor keeps on correcting his students accordingly and reminds them of the fundamental principles already

taught at the beginning of the course. This work should be begun early, for, as we know, it is very hard to eradicate bad habits of speech after a certain length of time. Here are a few suggestions which may enable the instructor to carry out successfully the teaching of intonation.

First, on the first day, we shall make it clear to our students that the successful study of a modern foreign language, by its nature, involves the necessity of acquiring new habits of study in almost every way. Concerning intonation, we shall make the differences between the American and the French speech melody striking. It is not at all difficult to have students say,

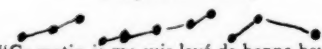
instead of

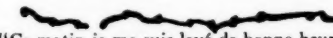

"Bonjour monsieur,"

or,


"Bonjour monsieur,"

instead of


"Ce matin je me suis levé de bonne heure,"


"Ce matin je me suis levé de bonne heure."

Then we shall proceed to correct their intonation as strictly as their accent, or their pronunciation of vowels or consonants, whether they speak, read, ask a question, or even utter an exclamation. We must not forget that stress (*l'accent d'intensité*), length of sounds (*la durée*), as well as pitch (*l'accent musical*), are integral parts of intonation.

At the end of a few weeks, intensive study of a text, like the one below, can be undertaken. Such texts should be somewhat humorous and contain dialogues in which various kinds of emotions are to be expressed. Enough space must be left between lines to enable us to jot down both the American and French intonation of the sentences printed beneath. This may be done in the classroom by the students themselves, naturally with the teacher's help.

Before doing this, however, a thorough "explication de texte" is necessary. We must explain the meaning of the text, as the student has to understand it thoroughly in order to be able to use the same sentences in his conversation, or to adapt their intonation to similar sentences expressing the same ideas and feeling. It is helpful to discuss the intonation adopted and to have students take notes.

Probably very few French people would entirely agree with this intonation. One reason is that no two people have exactly the same intonation; another, that there are various interpretations of a text; and another, that many would fail to understand the pedagogical reasons here taken into consideration.

Of course no definite rules can be given and it goes without saying that we should emphasize the practice much more than the theory.

However, a few general principles from which we should not depart are the following:

1. In French we never slur or glide.
2. We "jump" more than in English from one note to another.
3. Prepositions and conjunctions are generally on a low tone.
4. In general, we stress such adverbs as *tout*, *bien*, *plus*, and a few

LE JOUR DE CATHERINE

(d'après Anatole France)³

Il est cinq heures. Mademoiselle Catherine reçoit ses poupées. C'est son jour. Les poupées ne parlent pas: le petit Génie qui leur donna le sourire leur refusa la parole. Si les poupées parlaient on n'entendrait qu'elles. Pourtant, le cercle est animé. Mademoiselle Catherine parle pour ses visiteuses aussi bien que pour elle-même; elle fait les demandes et les réponses. Comment allez-vous, madame?—Je me suis cassé le bras hier matin en allant acheter des gâteaux. Mais c'est guéri.—Ah! tant mieux!—Et comment va votre petite?—Elle a la coqueluche.—Ah! quel malheur!—Elle tousse?—Non, c'est une coqueluche qui ne tousse pas.—Vous savez, Madame, j'ai encore eu deux enfants la semaine dernière.—Vraiment? Cela fait quatre.—Quatre ou cinq, je ne sais plus. Quand on en a tant, on s'embrouille.—Moi, ma chère, je vais au bal tous les jours.—C'est bien amusant.—Oui, je mets une robe bleue et je danse avec des jeunes gens, tout ce qu'il y a de mieux, des généraux, des princes, des confiseurs . . .

others (let us keep in mind that a stressed syllable is usually on a high tone).

5. All strong emotions, questions, exclamations, interjections, etc., begin on a high tone.

6. When we interrupt our sentence to pause for breath, we raise our voice before the pause, and pronounce the last syllable on a higher pitch.

We may add that the phonograph is very useful for those studying at home without a teacher, or in the language laboratory. Yet, it is true

³ French intonation: unbroken lines; English (American) intonation: dotted lines.

beyond a doubt that the instructor will generally prove more helpful to students than all of the records in existence. In phonetics classes the use of the dictaphone, which enables students to hear their own mistakes and thus to understand and correct them better, is to be recommended. The aim of this paper, however, has been to deal with regular classes only.

In conclusion, let us say that acquiring a good intonation is only a habit-process, for students as well as for teachers. It is not, as has been claimed, an obstacle to the fixing of grammar or vocabulary. On the contrary, teaching intonation helps us to arouse more interest in our classes, to establish the foreign atmosphere, and to emphasize more clearly the differences between the mother-tongue and the foreign language. Besides, it has a great mnemonic value. It is easier to learn and remember sentences with a particular rhythm and melody attached to them.

Therefore, we can say that teaching intonation simplifies the task of both instructors and students. The first step, of course, is to convince ourselves of its importance and its practicability. An experiment carried out seriously and systematically will reveal interesting results.

Teaching the Pronunciation of Spanish "r"

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(Author's summary.—The most characteristically Spanish of the consonant sounds, and one which is practically unknown in American-English pronunciation, is written with a symbol which in American English represents a very different sound, and one which in turn is foreign to Spanish. The purpose of this paper is to encourage teachers of Spanish to teach a mastery of this sound by means of a scheme which has been thoroughly tried out, and which is scientifically indicated by authorities.)

SINCE of all Spanish sounds the pronunciation of the Spanish simple *r* (not initial, and not following *n*, *l*, *s*) "is the most difficult for those Americans who were born and reared . . . in the great hinterland, where the natives use a back or velar *r*,"¹ we instructors in Spanish may well take note of our method of teaching this sound to see if we can improve it. The need for early attention to the mastery of this pronunciation is particularly urgent because of the fact that the two languages, American-English and Spanish, use the same symbol *r* for two usually very distinct sounds which should never be confused. Before discussing a technique we must in fairness examine what our common American grammars offer. Of twenty-four standard texts in present-day use, nineteen suggest some kind of "trill," "roll," "vibration" or "flip" of the tongue. But what do these terms mean to the average North-American student, for instance in a midwestern state, or, as Kenyon says, "in the North and West generally"?² The reply will of course depend on the teacher's interpretation of the terms. Some call a "rolled *r*" what others call "a back *r*" or "hard palate *r*."³ Many otherwise careful teachers do not pretend to teach the Spanish *r*, while some over-emphasize it so much that their students' pronunciation is ludicrous. It would almost seem that "the less a learner is reminded of a 'rolled' single *r*, the better off he will be."⁴ So rare is this sound in American speech, according to Krapp,⁵ that to him "it has not seemed necessary to provide a special symbol for it."

¹ E. C. Hills so stated in his review of the third edition of T. Navarro Tomás's "Manual de pronunciación española," *Hispania*, ix (1926), 366.—H. Kurath, in "American Pronunciation" (Tract xxx, Society for Pure English, 1928, Clarendon Press), says that Western Pronunciation is "the most distinctly American manner of speaking," and discusses the various renderings of *r* in this country.

² John S. Kenyon, "Some Notes on American R," in *American Speech*, i (March, 1926), 330.—See also Soames and Viëtor, "Introduction to English, French and German Phonetics," Macmillan and Co., London, 1913, 37; Walter Ripman, "The Sounds of Spoken English," E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1924, 55; R. H. Stetson, "Motor Phonetics," 1928; and T. Navarro Tomás's review of E. G. Wahlgren, "Un problème romane. Le développement d>*r*," in *Revista de Filología Española*, xviii (1931), 393–395.

³ G. P. Krapp, "The Pronunciation of Standard English in America," Oxford University Press, 1919, 23–24.

⁴ Oscar G. Russell, "The Pronunciation of Spanish R," *Modern Language Journal*, iii (January 1919), 174–184.

⁵ Krapp, *op. cit.*, 21.

Then how shall we teach this sound? Several years ago I happened to see in a Los Angeles newspaper for Spanish-speaking people some advice for newly-arrived Mexicans, including suggestions as to how to pronounce certain common English words or phrases so as to be understood. There was something like this: "No te pongas a decir *automóvil*, sino *áromobil*, si quieres que te entiendan; ni digas *put it up* sino *poletap*, para que el gringo lo alce." The idea appealed to me strongly, especially since I could remember that in my childhood in Mexico I used to hear such reproductions as *poletap* for "put it up," *gueraut* for "get out," and *juarayugúan* for "what do you want," among the schoolboys who were learning English from us by ear. It was not till much later that I discovered Russell's suggestion that we teach the Spanish simple *r* as a practical equivalent of English *d*, and also *t*, when intervocalic and post-tonic; and Espinosa's detailed and very enlightening discussion of ten years previous concerning the parallel between English *t*, *d* and the New Mexican Spanish *r*.⁶

If, then, the Mexican and the New Mexican Spaniard hear our North-American medial *t* or *d* as the equivalent of their *r*, it seems reasonable to apply the corollary to our teaching of Spanish *r*, and to have our students examine carefully their pronunciation of that medial *t*, *d*, in rapid speech in order to improve their pronunciation of Spanish *r*.⁷ The value of a suggestion which was acknowledged by Tomás Navarro Tomás in the third edition of his *Manual*; proven sound physiologically by Samuel Gili's kimo-graphic experiments; and adopted by at least one U. S. textbook⁸ and one dictionary⁹ should, it seems to me, be better appreciated by us teachers of

⁶ Aurelio M. Espinosa, "Studies in New Mexican Spanish," *Bulletin of the University of New Mexico*, Language Series, I, 2 (1909), par. 249: "Initial and medial *d* becomes New Mexican Spanish *r* in *lady*>*lere-goodbye*>*gurbái*; . . . The English *d* in these words, as in many others, is very weak, being a mere flap of the upper front of the tongue against the upper gums, approaching the sound of the simple Spanish *r*, and hence the change is easy to explain. The dental stop *d* of the Spanish and New Mexican or the fricative inter-dental New Mexican *d* are evidently much unlike the English *d* of the above words, as ordinarily pronounced in careless speech." Also, par. 255: "English medial *t* becomes simple *r* in New Mexican Spanish in: *sweater*>*suerá*, . . . *get up*>*guerop* . . . not a distinct *t*, but the weak *d* of *goodbye*, which becomes New Mexican Spanish *r*."

⁷ The members of a phonetics class were delighted to learn, during the period when we were studying this problem, that the then five-year old daughter of my colleague, Juan B. Rael, a New Mexican Spaniard, had recently complained to her mother: "Oye, mamacita, no me gusta que mis amiguitas me digan *Madia* (Mah-dee-ah) en vez de *María*." And I still keep a card given me by Mrs. Rael on which a neighbor child wrote, to accompany a birthday gift, "Madea from Gwen. At that time our children used to call their kittens "Kah-dah-blán-kah" and "Kah-düh-bon," as their nearest approach to "Cara Blanca" and "Carbón."

⁸ Hills and Ford, "Spanish Grammar for Colleges," Heath, 1928, par. 11: "It is made approximately in the position of English *d*."

⁹ *Appleton New Spanish Dictionary*, Arturo Cuyás, newly revised and enlarged by Antonio Llano (1928), Part II, preface, p. xiii: "R, between two vowels, has a sound usually likened to that of English *r* in *very*, but which perhaps is more like that of English *d* in *caddy* when very rapidly pronounced." (A footnote goes on to say: "It has been my experience with

Spanish and put into practice, possibly along some such lines as are herewith outlined.

My beginning students are first introduced to Spanish syllables and words which employ the five vowels (single, and in diphthongs) in combination with those eleven English consonant symbols which represent sounds usually similar in Spanish: *c* (before *a, o, u*), *g* (before *a, o, u*), *ch*, *f*, *l* (with the tongue forward), *m*, *n*, *p*, *s* (never intentionally sounded like our *z*), *t* and *y*. These eleven are followed in turn by: (1) English consonant symbols representing sounds for which Spanish has a different symbol from that used in English (English *ny* for Spanish *ñ*; English *ly* for Spanish *ll*); (2) English consonant symbols representing sounds usually different in Spanish: sounds known in English: *d*, *h*, *gu* (before *e, i*), *qu*, *c* (before *e, i*), and *z*; sounds unknown in English: *b*, *v*, *g* (before *a, o, u*), *r*, *rr*; and sounds unusual in English: *g* (before *e, i*), *j* and *x*. They soon find fun and profit in trying to spell out in Spanish symbols the words dictated to them from English (regularly dividing into syllables and underlining the stressed one), such as: copy (*ca-pi*); mute (*miut*); mate (*meit*); pace (*peis*); vase (*veis*); bone (*boun*); say (*sei*); foe (*fou*); pony (*pou-ni*); why (*juai*); quite (*cua-it*); quiet (*cua-yet*); mighty (*mai-ti*); Tommy (*ta-mi*); comma (*ca-ma*); China (*chai-na*); tighten (*tai-ten*). These are followed by: "get on," "get up," "get out," "put on," "put it away," "cut out," "cut it out," "at-a-boy," "to nobody," "a lot o' fun," "a cot apiece," "a pot o' gold," "a pot o' what," "a potato." After the students are put through their paces pronouncing these rapidly, I frankly choose one of those who make a good "tongue flip" in their pronunciation, and have him read rapidly from the blackboard, calling their attention to the sound he gives to the *d* or *t*. (Naturally the students with whom I have to work hardest are those who pronounce their English most meticulously correctly, making a clear sound of the intervocalic *t* with perhaps a slight breath sound between it and the following vowel. Some of them find it difficult to speed up the production of this sound of *t* so that it shall become a *d* and thus sound like a Spanish *r*.) The next step is to guide the students in making a parallel column where they may show how the Spaniard would spell what he heard the student say. The above phrases would then appear as: *gue-ran*; *gue-rap*; *gue-raut*; *po-ran*¹⁰; *po-re-ta-uey*; *ca-raut*; *ca-re-taut*; *a-ra-voy*; *tu-nou-va-ri*; *a-la-ra-fan*; *a-ca-ra-pis*; *a-pa-ra-gould*; *a-pa-ra-juat*; *a-po-rei-to* or *a-pa-rei-ro*. I find that they really enjoy this, and occasionally go home to drill other

American beginners in Spanish that when such words as *cara*, *dinero*, *tiro*, are dictated to them, they almost invariably write them *cada*, *dinedo*, *tido*, unless they have previously seen them written. A. L.)

¹⁰ In this case I have to ask for the pronunciation of *o* in "on" to be like that in "collar," rather than like the *a* in "caller." In western Oregon the pronunciation of *o* is commonly like the *a* in "all" where Webster's calls for the sound in "collar." Thus, in "all gone," and "on awning," we usually hear the same vowel-sound in both words.

members of the family or household in pronouncing "the most difficult sound in Spanish!"

The next step is to have them pronounce aloud in turn, under careful supervision, certain Spanish symbols and words such as these (they having meanwhile learned the use of the accent in Spanish): gue-rán, *gran*; gue-ra-to, *grato*; po-ra-do, *prado*; ca-rá-ne-o, *cráneo*; a-lá-ra-ma, *alarma*; cá-ra-pa, *carpa*. But eternal vigilance must be maintained against the lazy eye which sees in the symbol *r* the American sound, and not the new one that they are drilling on.

Finally, we find it very helpful to write out in American-English symbols those words which occasionally call for drill or cause trouble, employing the symbols in Webster's dictionary as far as possible. To these we add a few, including the symbol "D" (to represent Spanish *r*, and yet not cause confusion with Spanish *d*); the symbol "th" for Spanish *z* or soft *c*, as distinguished from the symbol "th" (with the connecting line running through both letters to represent the *th* in *then*); the symbol "H" for the Spanish *j*; and the symbol "·" to represent the "pequeño elemento vocálico," as Navarro Tomás calls it, which occurs between a Spanish *r* and a consonant, and between a consonant and the Spanish *r*.¹¹ Below are given examples of such symbols, stressed syllables being underlined.

SPANISH	ENGLISH SYMBOLS	SPANISH	ENGLISH SYMBOLS
gran	g·Dän	para	pä·Dä
grande	g·Dän-deh	prado	p·Dä-thô
cara	kä·Dä	pardo	päD·-thô
cura	koo·Dä	foro	fo·Dô
cruda	k·Doo-thä	formo	fôd··mô
cortará	kôD·-tä·Dä	frontera	f·Dôn-teh·Dä

Having been using and trying to improve this system for several years, I offer these suggestions to my fellow-teachers in the hope that they will accept the challenge and make the effort to teach adequately the pronunciation of the Spanish simple *r* in a country where many have never even heard the sound.

¹¹ Samuel Gili, "La R simple en la pronunciación española," *Revista de Filología Española*, VIII (1921), 271-280. The kimogram chart showing the vowel between *p* and *r* in *prado* is given on p. 276.

The Teaching of Scientific French and German

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THE purpose of this study was to determine the present status of the teaching of scientific French and German in a representative list of American colleges and universities with reference to prerequisite courses, content and scope of courses given, methods of teaching, and general tendencies. It is written from the point of view of a teacher who has taught these subjects for a number of years and has been in close contact with teachers of scientific and technical subjects.

The information was obtained from a study of two hundred thirty-eight recent catalogues of colleges and universities, and from sixty-seven replies received in answer to a questionnaire sent to representative teachers of French and German. The description in catalogues is often brief and somewhat indefinite. The answers to the questionnaire contained varying amounts of information. On the whole, the interest shown was gratifying, and the writer wishes to express his sincere thanks to all those who co-operated so kindly.

1. Information Obtained from Catalogues

Scientific French.—Of the 238 catalogues examined, thirty list courses in scientific French. Thirteen schools offer one semester; fifteen offer two semesters; and two offer four semesters. Twelve of the courses are three-hour courses; ten are two-hour; four are four-hour; two are one-hour; one is a five-hour course; and one is a six-hour course.

As a prerequisite, thirteen schools require one year of college French; two require one and one-half years; eight require two years; and one requires the consent of the instructor.

The content of the course is most frequently described as "scientific readings." Others state: "technical and biological texts," "adapted to student," and "for science students." The specific subjects are rarely mentioned.

Scientific German.—Of the same 238 catalogues examined, one hundred and seven list courses in scientific German. Thirty-nine offer one-semester courses; sixty offer two-semester courses; five offer three-semester courses; and four offer four-semester courses. Fifty-two give three-hour courses; twenty-five give two-hour courses; twelve give four-hour courses; two give five-hour courses, and seven give one-hour courses.

Thirty-seven schools require two years of college German as a prerequisite; one requires three years; sixteen require one and one-half years; thirty-three require one year; and four require the "consent of the instructor."

The content of the courses is usually described as "scientific readings," although the following are specifically mentioned: chemistry, physics, bi-

ology, medicine, mathematics, psychology, metallurgy, ceramics, geology, architecture, archeology, history, geography, and scientific and technical magazines. Others state "modern scientific German," "individual needs," "for science students," "humanities," etc.

2. Information Obtained from the Questionnaire

Scientific French.—Eighteen replies stated that courses in scientific French were given. These courses varied in length from one to four semesters, and recited from one to five times a week. The usual length of the course was two semesters, with three hours of recitation a week. The subjects mentioned as read were chemistry, physics, biology, anatomy, architecture, botany, zoology, and general scientific and technical French. Practically all the current American scientific French readers and several French publications were used as textbooks. Frequently read textbooks are Williams, *Technical and Scientific French*; Daniels, *Readings in Scientific French*; and the magazine *La Science et la Vie*. About 350 students were reported as enrolled in scientific French courses.

Most schools studied do not give courses in scientific French as such, but require the usual courses in the French language and literature. One informant, for example, reported that two terms of French, not scientific, were required of all science students above the average ability in German. Another says: "We have not offered a course in scientific French for about ten years." A well-known professor wrote: "Anyone who can read ordinary French can read scientific works." Hence it may be inferred that there is no necessity for teaching special courses in scientific French.

Scientific German.—Fifty-five of the sixty-seven informants replied that courses in scientific German were given. The length of these courses varied from one to six semesters, with from one to five hours of recitation a week. In the majority of cases the course consisted of three hours of recitation a week for two semesters. The chief content of the reading material by subjects was chemistry, physics, biology, medicine, general science, geology, engineering, anthropology, psychology, astronomy, architecture, electricity, mathematics, city planning, music, and social science. The most popular textbooks were Greenfield, *Technical and Scientific German*; Burkhardt, *Readings in Medical German*; Curts, *Readings in Scientific and Technical German*; Greenfield, *An Introduction to Chemical German*; and Kip, *Scientific German Reader*. Other readers reported as read were those by De Vries, Fiedler and Sandbach, Koischwitz, Ostwald, Raschen and Fairfield, Scholz, Wait, and Wright. A considerable number of imported German books and periodicals were used in specific courses. The "*Sammlung Götschen*" and "*Aus Natur und Geisteswelt*" furnish excellent reading material in certain subjects.

Approximately 2,500 students were reported as enrolled in courses in scientific German.

Fifteen informants reported that both scientific French and German were taught in their schools.

3. *Methods of Teaching*

According to the questionnaire, the number of pages of scientific French read per week varied from ten to fifty pages, and the number for scientific German varied from two to forty pages a week.

In reply to the question: "Do the students read the original text in class?" twenty-four answered "yes"; six answered "at first"; thirteen answered "partly"; and twenty said "no."

To the question: "Do the students translate everything so read?" twenty answered "yes"; seven, "no"; and six, "partly."

In answer to the question: "Do you have grammar and composition review?" seventeen replied "yes"; twenty-six, "no"; and five, "rarely."

To "Do you study word-formation?" forty replied "yes"; five, "no"; and three, "rarely." One replied that word-formation in German was studied, but not word-formation in French.

Not all the questions were answered by everybody.

Characteristic excerpts pertaining to the method of the recitation follow:

"Very accurate translation of about two pages by the student. Grammatical analysis of difficult constructions by instructor. Word-building exercises," etc.

"We confine ourselves solely to translation from German to English. We have no composition, no conversation. We reduce grammar to a minimum, for we get results in rapid and accurate translation at sight. . . ."

"No grammar or composition review. The ability to translate rapidly is the main object of the course."

"We find that the average student desires not ability to read and pronounce but to understand the printed word. Accurate translation is insisted on at first, later paraphrase of contents suffices . . . translation only occasionally or when paraphrase indicates lack of understanding . . . By making the course contribute to the student's scientific education by the value of its contents, it has become attractive to many others than merely science majors."

4. *Prospect and Comment*

As to the interest in scientific French, six answered that it was increasing; three, that it was decreasing; and six, that it was static. As to German, thirty-eight reported the interest was increasing; nine said it was static; and none reported a decrease in interest. The reasons for the increase of interest were stated variously as: "necessary for medicine and technology," "scientific interest," "science major students feel the need," and "more interesting textbooks, improved methods of teaching."

Excerpts from replies received:

"We have not been giving scientific German for several years. It was

thought that a good second-year course was better for building a foundation in German than readings in scientific prose without grammar. Then the various departments complained that we were not offering enough in their particular fields. . . ."

"At this university, we believe that courses in scientific German, etc., are not desirable. . . . With the present enormously increased subdivision into special fields, classes in scientific German can scarcely be held together."

"The popularity of scientific German is due partly to the subject-matter, the variety of it, and partly to the fact that in the extensive reading, which is carried along with the material read in class, the students may choose non-technical material."

"... there is a large increase in the number of science students taking German. The science departments insist on a knowledge of German. In one undergraduate course, I understand, they use a German book as a textbook."

"Scientific German has always been an important part of our German work. This is perhaps largely a matter of the stimulus given to the work by the teacher, who is personally interested in science and has done some research work in certain fields. Scientific German can be made a cultural course if the professor has an interest in the history of science. Teachers who are interested exclusively in literary things are not likely to make the course a success."

It appears evident that a reading knowledge of both French and German is desirable for research in science, and, in many cases, for the progressive engineer. The present demand for German is stronger than that for French. This is due, partly, to the observation that an American finds it more difficult to read scientific German than scientific French, on account of the vocabulary, inflection, and syntax of the former, and, partly, to the fact that the Germans have published an enormous amount of scientific and technical literature which cannot be ignored by men of science, particularly in the fields of chemistry, metallurgy, and medicine.

The methods of teaching vary somewhat, but the chief aim is to give the student the ability to use the foreign language as a tool to get information from the printed page. To facilitate this aim the specialized vocabulary of science and technology is singled out and taught as such. If a student wishes, after the proper preliminary preparation, to read such a lecture, for example, as Planck's *Das Weltbild der neuen Physik*, the most practical and direct method is to read this lecture in German, rather than to read such books as Grimm's *Märchen* or Schiller's dramas as a general preparation for the reading of scientific German. The acquiring of useful scientific information should result as a by-product. The writer believes that a year's course in the elements of the language, stressing the fundamentals of grammar and the basic vocabulary, should be the minimum prerequisite to any course in scientific French or German.

Report of the Annual Meeting of the National Federation

CHARLES W. FRENCH

Secretary-Treasurer

THE Hotel John Marshall, Richmond, Virginia, was the place of the annual meeting of the Executive Committee of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers. President DiBartolo called the meeting to order at 2:10 on Tuesday afternoon, December 29, 1936. The roll call and seating of delegates showed all members (15) present. The reading of the minutes of the 1935 Annual Meeting was dispensed with, as each member had received a copy and the report had been printed in the *Modern Language Journal*. The reports of the Business Manager and of the Secretary-Treasurer were read and accepted subject to examination by the Auditing Committee. As auditors the President appointed Professors Beardsley and Fitz-Gerald.

Under the head of *Old Business* the following reports were made and motions passed as indicated:

Miss Lindquist gave a very complete and interesting report on the genesis of the St. Louis meeting held in February, 1936. She told of the excellent program put on at that meeting and of the need of educating supervisors, principals, and others to the importance of modern foreign languages in the school curriculum. Discussion followed her report, and it was the general feeling that strenuous action must be taken in order to save a serious situation in the modern foreign languages. Attention was called to conditions in Arizona and Nebraska. It was *voted* to grant \$100 to Miss Lindquist's committee for the meeting to be held in New Orleans in February, 1937, and a similar amount to be spent for a like purpose in 1938 was also authorized.

A committee appointed to consider ways and means of collecting subscriptions to the *Journal* was heard through its chairman, Professor Beardsley. This committee recommended: (a) that the *Journal* receive \$2 for each subscription from members of affiliated associations, the price to the individual subscriber being determined by each association; (b) that subscribers getting the *Journal* independently of the local associations shall pay \$2.50 to the Business Manager; (c) that local secretaries shall bill and collect subscriptions until January 1: after that date the Business Manager may collect. After a long discussion it was *voted* to table this report until the next annual meeting, and that the same committee be continued and report again in 1937.

Mr. Shield reported that a complete file of the *Journal* for five years past had been sent to the Centre de Documentation of the Fédération Internationale in Paris, and that a free copy of current numbers is being sent regularly. Professor Fitz-Gerald made a brief report on the sending of American textbooks in the modern languages to the Centre de Documentation.

The question of a head-tax on affiliated associations was *laid on the table indefinitely*.

Under *New Business*, the following motions were passed:

Voted that a modern language program be put on at the Detroit meeting of the N.E.A. in July, without expense to the Federation.

Voted that no other meetings be participated in by the Federation without full discussion by and consent of the Executive Committee.

Voted to grant permission to Professor Tharp to bring out a new edition of the "Basic French Vocabulary," this edition to be quite independent of the Federation.

At this point further business and discussion were interrupted by adjournment for dinner. At 8 o'clock the meeting was resumed.

A very earnest discussion followed as to the advisability of retaining our membership in the World Federation of Education Associations and the *Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes*. A ballot resulted in an 8 to 7 vote in favor of withdrawing from these associations, and the secretaries of these organizations have been notified of our action.

Voted that a committee of three be appointed to examine the question of a constitutional amendment which shall clarify the matter of membership in the Federation as stated in our By-Laws. This committee, appointed by Miss Lindquist and consisting of Professors Fitz-Gerald, Chairman, Beardsley, and French, is to report at the next annual meeting.

The subject of co-operation with the Classical Association in an effort to give the foreign languages their proper place in the curricula of schools and colleges was brought up by President DiBartolo. A long discussion followed, led by Mr. Milwitzky. It was finally *moved and carried* that the committee authorize Miss Lindquist to request the Classical Association to match our contribution of \$100 toward the expenses of the New Orleans meeting in February.

A resolution was presented by the Pacific Coast Federation and seconded by the Modern Language Association of Arizona, as follows: "*Resolved*, that this Association would view with approval the revival of action by the American Association of University Professors through its Committee Q, taking cognizance of the over-stressing of educational requirements to the detriment of content courses." Professor Fitz-Gerald seconded this resolution in the following terms: "The Modern Language Association of Arizona asks the Federation to disapprove of the recommendation of the High School Principals of Arizona to lower the college entrance requirements in that state. *Voted* to send a copy of the above resolution to the Secretary of the American Association of University Professors in Washington.

Voted to go on record as favoring security of tenure of office for teachers in secondary schools and colleges. The Secretary is to send a copy of this motion to Professor Jameson at Oberlin College.

Voted that a copy of the Federation's financial statement be sent to each secretary of local affiliated associations.

The Auditing Committee reported that the accounts of the Business Manager for 1934-35 and 1935-36 and the report of the Treasurer for 1936 had been audited and found to be correct.

Election of officers for the ensuing year resulted in the choice of Miss Lindquist for President, Professor Merlino for Vice-President, and Professor French for Secretary-Treasurer.

The annual meeting adjourned at 11:20 p.m.

• “What Others Say—” •

THE PRESENT POSITION IN VOCABULARY SELECTION FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING*

MICHAEL WEST

Lately of the Indian Education Service; Author of “The New Method English Dictionary”

THE CARNEGIE REPORT

WE HAVE reached an interesting point in the discussion of Vocabulary Selection in foreign language teaching, and the present is a useful moment to take stock of the past and look forward into the future.

An Interim Report of the Carnegie Foundation on Vocabulary Selection has recently been published. It is not definitive nor prescriptive, but is rather designed to throw open the subject to discussion. In the introduction it states certain principles and suggests subjects for research. It gives a list of some two thousand words which are, tentatively, thought worthy of inclusion; it shows some two or three thousand other words which were considered, but not definitely adopted, or else proposed for rejection; finally, in the body of the report, it sets out in detail the compounds and meaning-shifts of the selected words, showing just how far it is proposed that each word should go—(how far away from its original form and fundamental idea). The two thousand words included in this list are all of a general service nature; they include few content words.¹

Two thousand words (excluding the content words required to localize or individualize any word-list) is a large vocabulary. The Carnegie Report marks the outer edge of a word-list from which any particular vocabulary may be made, by selection and complementing. Its special value in connection with any smaller vocabulary is this—that it shows what is missed out.

It is impossible to criticize the content words of any vocabulary; they depend on local circumstances and individual needs; but in regard to its structural and semi-structural words, the Carnegie Report enables one to say, “You have not got the word (e.g.) ‘purpose’: you propose to cover it by ‘aim’—What do you intend to do about ‘on purpose’ in view of the fact that you have not got ‘accident’?”

It is hoped ultimately that a revised version of the Carnegie list may be produced embodying the results of criticism; but, in the writer’s opinion, it is undesirable that there should ever be any one prescriptive list, for that would tend to hamper the liberty of teachers and writers, and do more harm than good. What is needed is a standard from which infinite divergencies may be made, as well as a set of criteria, so that those who diverge may do so with reasoned intention.

THREE MAIN SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT

There are three main types of Vocabulary Selection:

1. *The Word-Frequency School*.—Exponents of this school follow as closely as possible the results of objective word-counts, such as those of Thorndike, Horn, Faucett. They argue that the results of a word-count are objective; a word-count proves that a certain word has value because it was actually encountered a large number of times in the representative material used in the study. Any divergence from this objective standard is liable to plunge the teacher into a sea of conflicting opinions.

* Reprinted from *The English Literary and Educational Review for Continental Readers* (Paul Hempel, Editor), Leipzig, vol. VII, no. 2 (Summer, 1936).

¹ Content words=names of things about which one might talk (e.g., waistcoat, sausage, palm-tree, passport) rather than structural words necessary in all discourse irrespective of subject.

A strong argument in favor of the word-frequency list is the fact that the first two thousand words of any frequency list covers 80 per cent of word occurrences in ordinary material taken at random.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST WORD-FREQUENCY

The arguments against word-frequency lists are as follows: (1) That the top layer of any word-frequency list does not yield a self-sufficient vocabulary: thus the first thousand words of such a list gives a vocabulary which shows notable gaps—for example, such necessary words as 'gun', 'cheese', 'aeroplane', are not there, and there is no means of expressing the idea. (2) The word-frequency list is very much affected by the subject of the material upon which it is based: thus Horn's list, based on correspondence, in which business correspondence perhaps predominated, tends to give a high value to such words as "representative", "credit", "account", whereas Thorndike's list, based upon more literary material, tends to give higher value to "angel", "fairy", "spirit".

In consequence of this second objection certain studies have been made which are not based on word-frequency, but upon range of occurrence. Instead of counting the number of times a word occurs in certain books, a study has been made of the number of books in which the word occurs. This tends to lower the value of a word which gains a high credit by very frequent occurrence in only one particular type of literature (e.g., "fry", if a cookery book was included).

The word-range list yields a vocabulary even more colorless than a word-frequency list, and tends to be even more lacking in the names of things to talk about.

THE VALUE OF WORD-FREQUENCY

As a guide in selection of a *reading* vocabulary the word-frequency list is unassailable; for obviously that word which is most frequently met in reading material is the most valuable word for one to learn to read.

The difficulty however remains that the first thousand (or one thousand five hundred, or two thousand) words of any such list do not constitute a self-contained vocabulary which can be used for telling stories or other purposes without the addition of a considerable number of outside words.

A section (e.g., the first thousand words) of a frequency list may, however, be supplemented so as to make a workable vocabulary. This may be done in one of three ways:

(1) *By adding content words outside the layer but still in the order of their frequency.* Thus when one is writing within one thousand words, one may take in any content word which lies at the two thousand level but not beyond.

(2) *By means of cognates.* A frequency list may be supplemented by taking in cognates where one is dealing with pupils of only one language, e.g., French for English-speaking pupils. This is a dangerous procedure, for there is a tendency to take in foreign cognates of which the key word in the mother-tongue is not known to the pupil.

(3) *By adding a subjective selection of content words.* A frequency vocabulary may be supplemented by adding a minimum set of content words chosen according to some particular theory or experience. Thus, for example, anyone experienced in the writing of simplified material gets to know the type of content word which is necessary as an addition to the word-frequency list, and a set of these may fairly easily be given as a complement. One may also study those outside words found necessary by other authors of simplified material; or again one may use a technique similar to that of the Idea-Selection School discussed below.

WORD-FREQUENCY IN A SPEAKING-WRITING VOCABULARY

Word-frequency is satisfactory as a criterion in selecting a reading vocabulary; but it is far less so in the case of a vocabulary intended for speaking and writing. (1) In reading we have to learn and recognize those words which are likely to be used by *other* speakers in expressing their ideas and interests; in speaking we are at liberty to choose our own words to express

our own ideas and interests. (2) Reading is a far simpler accomplishment, for most of the structure of a language is, in reading, neutral.² In reading most of the inflections (of other languages) are neutral. Most of the collocations³ are inferable in reading, though each one of them is an item of learning-burden for speaking. (3) Learning to read is easy; hence vocabulary-control need not be excessively strict. Learning to speak is far more difficult; every word, every item needs scrutiny, lest we present a course too large for mastery in the time available.

Is the frequency list suitable for a speaking vocabulary?—We believe not. It may be a suggestive guide, but something definitely more economical is required.

2. *The Structural School*.—Exponents of this school of thought in the main accept the word-frequency (or rather "range") order, but they reject from it words which seem to owe their frequency rather to the commonness of a thing named, than to its structural importance irrespective of subject. Their theory is that non-structural words do not matter; such words are easily learnt if required and impossible to predict.

In reference to the selection of a "productive" (speaking and writing) vocabulary, this point of view seems on the whole sound. It concentrates the teacher's and pupil's attention upon those elements which constitute the real learning-difficulty. But in practice it is liable to certain abuse.

(1) It tends to produce a dull and heavy course. It is in fact merely another form of that attitude which produced the old style of course in which the pupil conversed for weeks and months about pens, mustard, aunts and gardeners.

(2) In actual life we tend, in the earlier stage of learning a foreign language, to pick up a large number of naming words together with an absolute minimum of structure. Indeed in the earliest stage the tourist merely points and names; he speaks without structure. Later he adds a little structure, but the acquisition of content words tends for a long time to go ahead of the learning of a structural vocabulary fit to contain them. Whereas the exponents of this school of thought follow an opposite procedure—a linguistically correct but psychologically wrong word-order.

(3) The Structural School tends to teach less necessary or even stylistic elements at too early a stage, and to make structural and stylistic elements in the vocabulary disproportionately large in regard to the number of content words. The pupil learns "hence," "accordingly," "respecting" but is unable to produce a word for laundry, or sausage.

3. *The Idea-Selection School*.—The third school of thought in Vocabulary Selection is of a very different kind. Their technique consists in studying the set of ideas which needs to be expressed, and in covering this set of ideas with the smallest possible number of words, avoiding all synonyms. Thus some word is needed for the concept of putrescence,—shall we take "decay" or "rot?" Which word has the wider scope? So also we need Repair or Mend—or may we cover this by an extension of meaning of the word Fix (already included). This tech-

² Neutral words. The Esperanto preposition *je* is neutral; it is used to indicate a relationship, where the nature of the relationship is made clear by the context. Thus one might say "to go out *je* the door," "to come in *je* the window." In English we say "out at the door," "in by the window." These two words "at" and "by" are neutral in reading; the passage would be equally clear if one wrote "from" or "through" or anything or nothing. But in learning to speak they constitute a heavy burden—all the heavier because of their neutrality. Since any preposition would do as well, the particular one which is correct is all the harder to remember. Many verbs are also neutral: "I *je* on my hat" (put); "I *je* off my shoes" (take); "to *je* up a statue." The word "fix" in America is acquiring an almost neutral value.

³ Collocation=any group of words in a language which must be learnt as a unit (e.g., "go home," "fall head first," etc.). It is perhaps better to reserve the word Collocation for a group of words which must for speaking or writing be learnt as a unit, but whose meaning is in reading readily inferable, so that no learning burden is involved.—The word "idiom" may be reserved for non-inferable groupings of words—viz., words whose individual meanings added together do not give the meaning of the group. e.g., "to put up with," "Look out!"

nique tends rather to fix attention upon the content words and is thus psychologically right but it may tend to introduce into the vocabulary general terms covering a wide range of objects or ideas, which may in some cases be of rather infrequent use, or even rather stylistic for conversation. There is some danger also of structural inadequacy.

This procedure, of which Mr. Ogden is the chief exponent, is a very valuable contribution to the technique of modern language teaching, and it should certainly be studied by all who are interested in Vocabulary Selection. The vocabulary of Basic English is a very small one, and Mr. Ogden's execution of his theory is in some measure bound up with the idea of making English a world language, not only for speaking and letter-writing but also for sheer international communication of ideas through print. Hence Basic English should not be judged simply as a minimum speaking and letter-writing list.

Its chief importance to the language teacher is that it offers a technique for getting a small vocabulary which is capable of expressing a very wide range of ideas.

ITEMIZING OF VOCABULARY

Basic English has also been of great importance in another way—in emphasizing the need, especially in a speaking-writing vocabulary, of getting away from mere word-listing and word-counting.

Vocabulary is made up of units of learning effort. In setting out any vocabulary we have to enumerate all those things which the pupil has to learn. In a reading vocabulary we may count the word "home" as one unit, because a child who knows the meaning of "home" will find no difficulty in understanding "at home," "not at home," "feel at home," "feel oneself at home," "make oneself at home," "make a home in," "go home," "come home," "bring home." But in speaking vocabulary each of these things has to be learnt, and must therefore be listed and counted.

It is an open question just how far the meaning-stretch of a new word can usefully be carried. Just at what point is it really easier to learn a new word than to learn a special usage of an old one? Thus, knowing "pocket" and "book," is it better for the learner to learn "pocket-book?" or "wallet?" in view of the fact that a "pocket-book" is not a book but a bag. Is knowledge of "put" any help towards acquiring the idiom "put up with" or is it better to learn "stay with" and "bear" so as to avoid confusion?

Unquestionably Basic English in its general aspect is a notable contribution to the subject; of its particular application as shown in the published vocabulary the individual teacher may himself judge.

ITEMIZING IN RELATION TO SELECTION OF WORDS

It is curious to observe that the latest phenomenon (the Itemized List) in vocabulary study is the product of the two most widely divergent sets of opinions on the subject.

At a very early stage in discussion of Vocabulary Selection, Mr. Palmer asked the pertinent question "What is a word?"—Are we to count "Apply for a job" and "Apply a cup to the lips" as one word or two? So also "beat a drum" and "beat the enemy," "state"—a condition, and "affairs of state"?

Again, having set down a word in our list, how much of it is to be taught? We shall certainly teach "large" ("a large box"). Shall we teach "at large"? We shall teach "put" (a box on the table); shall we teach "put off a meeting"? Indeed, until such questions have been settled, we cannot make any definitive selection of words; for, if we have "put off," do we need "postpone"?

Every vocabulary tends to grow vertically, and horizontally. As we increase the number of new words, we also increase the learner's knowledge of the meanings and usages of words acquired previously. These two aspects of vocabulary growth must be kept in some reasonable relationship to each other.

It is an open question just how far detailed development of a word in the early stages is economical or otherwise.

There is in reading a wide inferential margin—an aura—of meaning-shifts and collocations which can, with the help of a context, easily be guessed. This reading margin tends to make the teacher of *productive* (=speech and writing) use under-estimate the burden of a speaking vocabulary, and make false economies where an inferable shift or collocation is more easily and safely replaced by a new and different word.

SEPARATION OF SPEECH-LEARNING AND READING

Perhaps the main outcome of recent discussion of vocabulary selection is a tendency to emphasize more and more the essential difference of the learning process in learning-to-read and in learning-to-speak, and the different technique required in selecting vocabulary for the one purpose, or for the other.

Dr. Hagboldt in his recently published book⁴ has perhaps for the first time adequately stressed the idea of *oral receptive work*. Lack of emphasis of this important idea has caused some confusion both of purpose and of method. Opponents of the reading method in America have used as an argument the fact that, in order to fix a reading vocabulary in the mind, some oral drill is necessary; and they have therefore mixed in with the reading course oral lessons of the Direct Method type. Their premise is correct, but the application has been wrong. In a reading course oral drill should be given on a new content word so as to fix it in the mind for future recognition. But the Direct Method type of intensive oral drill in *structural elements* is, for the reasons given above, out of place. In the same way the detailed itemizing of the collocations and structure needed for a speech course, is not necessary in a word-list for reading. Nor is the emphasis on the selection of content words found in a reading vocabulary necessary or desirable in a vocabulary intended for a speech-writing course. Both as regards Selection and still more as regards detailed Itemization, there is need of a divorce between receptive and productive work, between reading and speaking. Reading vocabulary is one thing; it is, selected in a certain way, it is taught in a certain way, and a pure single-minded reading approach can produce very remarkable results. Speaking vocabulary is a very different thing; it must be selected from a different view-point; it must be itemized in a very different manner. I believe that an intensive course aiming simply at speaking (and letter-writing) with a very limited productive vocabulary might also produce striking results.

SUMMARY

What we are suffering from at the present moment is confusion of mind and confusion of purpose. Teachers are trying to use the same vocabulary for reading and for speaking; hence they use a vocabulary too large for the one, too small for the other. They are giving composite lessons aiming at teaching reading and speaking simultaneously, whereas reading and speaking are the Hare and the Tortoise.—Reading and speech bear the same relation to each other as musical appreciation and actual execution on the piano. The one is *Recognition of a lot*; the other is *Skill in using a little*. The difficulty of the one consists in the memory-burden of a multiplicity of words needed to express a variety of subjects; the learning burden of the other consists in the deep fixation (as sub-conscious skills) of a relatively small number of structural elements.

Most learners are studying both aspects of the language simultaneously; but the two types of work should be kept separate—a separate textbook, a separate vocabulary, and a separate school period. They may be simultaneous, but they should run separate and parallel.

Only so will the maximum possible achievement in each department be attained.

⁴ Hagboldt, P., *Language Learning*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

GENERAL LANGUAGE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL*

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WITH the school year 1934-35 Northwestern High School in Detroit, Michigan, finished the second year of general language. We feel that this subject has now passed the experimental stage and is well established as a two-year subject for the general curriculum.

The need for such a course has grown out of changing social and economic conditions in the city. The character of the school population has become very different from what it was twenty years ago, or even ten years ago. Formerly the pupils for whom general language is designed would have left school after completing Grade VI or VII. Only the children of well-to-do families or of ambitious parents went to high school. This selection meant that the pupils of those days had more ability and a better background on which to build an education than have the high-school pupils of today. Now children enter high school with all kinds of preparation or lack of it, with a wide range of intelligence quotients, and with every degree of culture. At the present time the college-preparatory group in Northwestern High School includes only one-third of the pupils, although the percentage of college entrants is as high as that of any school in the city. The remaining two-thirds of the pupils in Northwestern High School are divided equally between commercial and general courses. With such a large number to take the general curriculum, changes must be made to enrich the program for these new pupils. From the standpoint of worthwhile content, variety, and interest, general language has a fine contribution to make to these boys and girls.

It is our policy to exclude from the general-language classes all who are capable of studying foreign language in a regular class. (In the course of the two years three pupils have been assigned to general language who were misplaced, and they were transferred to the foreign language of their choice at the end of the first semester.) This policy leaves in the general-language classes only pupils who have an ability range from lower Y to the bottom of the Z's in our X-Y-Z grouping. A large percentage of the pupils are colored. General language is in no sense a substitute for any other language course; it is rather an innovation. Moreover, at the end of the second semester with each class, I have considered it advisable to recommend for work in Latin, French, German, or Spanish from three to six pupils who could not possibly have succeeded before they had received a background in grammar in general language. Several of these pupils have elected to continue the second year of general language along with the foreign language selected. All these pupils are doing creditable work, even good work, in the foreign-language class.

The aim of general language in high school is to improve the pupil's understanding of English and to help him in its use, both oral and written, and to give him a cultural background for the greater appreciation of life and literature. The course, then, is an end in itself and is not meant to be mainly diagnostic, as it is in the intermediate schools.

Most of the pupils in the course are poor readers, spell badly, and have limited vocabularies. Few of them care to read. They are a hopeless-looking lot, indifferent, restless, and little interested in preparing assignments or in learning. The chief problem during the first weeks is the stimulating of interest. When the pupils have been aroused, have been brought to forget themselves and to feel at home in the class, they begin to want to express some of their experiences. Soon they show a willingness to read—in easy books—and to report on interesting topics. From then on they move ahead. If nothing more than this stimulation is gained during the first two weeks, the time has been economically spent.

During the first semester the class studies the purpose of language and the development of language, using Lindquist's textbook.¹ At the end of the first six weeks I ask whether any

* Reprinted from *The School Review*, vol. XLIII, no. 9 (November, 1935), pp. 664-671.

¹ Lilly Lindquist, *Laboratory Course in General Language*, Books I and II. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1929.

pupils are having difficulties in their English classes. Many are completely lost and discouraged and all have some problems in grammar. The questions are carefully listed. I then show them by a simple illustration how necessary a knowledge of grammar is to their study of Latin during the coming semester. This prospect, with the hope of raising their marks in English, is all the motivation that is needed for the struggle with parts of speech and their uses and with other items of grammar during the next three weeks. Much intensive drill is used.

The class then returns to the study of written language and its growth to the alphabet stage. This study gives an opportunity to learn some of the customs of various countries around the Mediterranean and their contributions to world-civilization. Attention is given to Egypt, Babylonia, Phoenicia, Crete, Greece, and Rome. From Rome the class moves to Britain and learns of the various invasions of the island and their effects on the English language.

The pupils then have a fair background on which to base the study of Latin in the second semester. Lindquist's second book is used, with supplementary material that is not in the textbook. One of the strengths of this course is its flexibility, but this characteristic might also be a weakness, as Miss Lindquist insists. During the first part of the semester the first two Latin declensions are learned and an acquaintance made with the third. The pupils master the uses of the cases, the agreement of adjectives, the indicative of first-conjugation verbs in active and passive voices, and the verb *sum*. Many sentences are translated from English into Latin as a means of learning the vocabulary. About the seventh week the class starts to read Reed's *Julia*² and finishes twenty-five or more pages of connected material. The stories appeal to the class, and the vocabulary is good. Considerable time is spent on derivation from words in the story—a most valuable part of the course. There is not enough time to spend on making scrap-books, dressing dolls, etc., but visual aids of this kind are probably more necessary for pupils who are younger than these.

The third semester is spent equally between French and German. Miss Lindquist's first book is used for a while, and then another departure is made from it. Only enough grammar is learned to enable the pupils to read easy stories and anecdotes in each language. In French mimeographed copies of legends taken from Guerber's *Contes et légendes*³ are used. In the study of German Hagboldt's *Allerlei*⁴ has been found very usable because of the large number of cognates and the simplicity of ideas. Again a great deal of time is devoted to derivation. The pupils enjoy learning songs and poems, and they memorize and reproduce these very well in concert and individually. Map study is used, and the pupils learn to locate the chief cities, rivers, and mountains of each country.

The final semester is the crown and glory of the whole course and its chief delight. The first two weeks are given to the study of about fifty Greek roots. Words are formed from the roots and used in sentences. Attention is then turned to mythology, Sabin's book⁵ being used as a textbook. Making mythology a part of the general-language course was the idea of Miss Cooper, the head of the language department of Northwestern High School. The plan has proved to be excellent. The class is as alive and as interesting as any in the school. It is surprising how well these children remember the stories. That they enjoy the myths is evident from the amount of extra reading that they do voluntarily and the number of references that they find in the world about them. Each day during the first part of the class hour they tell of pertinent things that they have seen or heard. It is difficult to keep up with the articles and books that they bring me to read. One girl, for example, found a copy of Lucian's *Dialogues* in the library and brought it to me. The class enjoyed some of these immensely, although I should probably never have thought of using them.

An interesting bulletin board is in charge of a committee, which arranges the new material

² Maud Reed, *Julia: A Latin Reading Book*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924.

³ Hélène A. Guerber, *Contes et légendes*. Chicago: American Book Company, 1923.

⁴ Peter Hagboldt, *Allerlei*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933.

⁵ Frances E. Sabin, *Classical Myths That Live Today*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1927.

contributed each week. The pupils have kept a list of the references to the myths that they have met in their reading and other contacts. These are listed in a card index with the exact quotations and their sources. About one hundred and fifty such recordings have been made. This list is convenient for review purposes. I have read aloud to the class that most delightful book *The Perilous Seat*.⁶ It gives a splendid picture of life at Delphi, with a remarkable feeling for the subject and for children. That this part of the course is worth while goes without saying. The English department has been most enthusiastic in its approval.

It soon becomes clear from experience that the teacher has to develop a technique for dealing with learners of this type. Teaching these pupils is an entirely different proposition from instructing a Latin class, which, at its worst, is made up of pupils of average and above-average intelligence. Unless the general-language class is informal and friendly, the teacher will find it impossible to get a response that accomplishes anything worthwhile. At first there is considerable disorder, but the disorder gradually lessens as the interest in the work increases. Truancy and absence from other causes run high, very high, but a marked improvement is noticeable even during the first semester and continues during the second semester. Absence is no unusual problem after that. The assignments must be short and specific, and care must be taken to see that work is done in order and on time. Children of lower abilities are a great group of slackers until they find that such tactics will not work. Most of the learning is done in class, especially during the first semester. Since no textbook is used for a great part of the work, it is necessary to depend on reports from reference reading. Almost all members of the class are willing, even eager, to prepare such reports and to present them orally. At first, of course, only the braver souls venture to do so, but, as time goes on, more pupils volunteer than are needed. Every pupil in the class is made to feel that he is important and can assist the whole class. The pupils take notes as the reports are discussed. A visitor who attended several classes remarked especially about the capable handling of these readings and the eagerness to contribute in the class.

Frequent written tests are given throughout the two years. It is enlightening to note the change in attitude toward these tests. At first the percentage of failures is high, but, as soon as the pupils definitely realize that they receive failing marks until their results reach the given standard, their marks begin to rise. Nothing has interested me more than the improvement in spelling, even in the case of the poorest spellers. Before the test on a unit in the first semester, spelling drills and a test on the new words in that unit are given. Then each misspelled word in the unit test is discounted one point. Few points are lost on any paper. There is little bad spelling in Latin, French, or German, and it is almost unbelievable how few words are spelled incorrectly after the first semester, in spite of the fact that no drill is given even on the difficult names in the myths. The percentage of pupils who fail the course is small, not more than six per cent during the second semester of 1934-35. The average number of pupils in the classes during 1934-35 was thirty-three.

Certain conclusions about method stand out. Much drill is necessary for these slow learners, and overlearning is essential. However, the pupils do not resent repetition if variety is introduced. They can learn a great deal, even very difficult subject-matter, and they remember well; but they must not be hurried. Given sufficient time these pupils could master the subject-matter of almost any course. A set amount of ground to cover could be a bugbear and bring disaster. It is better for them to learn fewer things and learn to the point of mastery. The teacher can use her judgment about what is most important for attaining the objectives set. I know of no course that offers better opportunities for stressing ideals of character and ethical conduct and for giving these children what they need perhaps as much as anything else—a taste of success. I try to emphasize the dignity of labor and the importance of doing simple jobs well, for I realize that these pupils will not be found later doing the complicated tasks of life. I find that more is accomplished through a class discussion on such subjects with myself as a contributing member.

⁶ Caroline Dale Snedeker, *The Perilous Seat*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc., 1929.

It occurred to me that it would be interesting to secure some of the pupils' own ideas about the value of general language and about the teaching of the course as they have been subjected to it. I therefore asked them to answer honestly and in their own way two questions: "What do you think about general language?" "What do you consider a good or a poor teacher?" Since they had no opportunity to discuss the questions together before writing, I think the independence of their judgments can be relied on. Several points about teaching mentioned in the papers, most of them expressed by several writers, are quoted below:

1. The teacher must make us feel that she has a real interest in us and understands us. If the teacher isn't interested, why should we be?

2. If the teacher is cheerful and pleasant, the classroom is attractive.

3. A business-like way of doing things, with a variation in procedure, keeps the class alive.

4. If the teacher is enthusiastic and exhibits her liking for the subject, the class is more interesting.

5. A teacher must be patient and especially must give a boy (or girl) time to think before he answers.

6. The teacher should like a joke and have enough sense of humor to overlook many little things.

7. Nagging is taboo.

8. The students don't want to be blamed for the sins of a few. The individuals should be talked to privately.

9. Sarcasm is one of the worst of crimes. [I agree.]

10. When the student finds points of correlation in other subjects and is allowed to report them, he feels an incentive to effort.

11. We like a preview of the course as a whole, for it gives us a feeling that the teacher has a well-defined plan.

12. Each new assignment should be explained carefully, where necessary.

Frequent reviews and tests, references to books other than the textbook, freedom to express themselves, fairness in marking, and impartiality were all mentioned as desirable.

One of the papers is quoted just as it was written. The pupil who wrote this paper made a mark of B on the course.

"When I first started General Language four terms ago, I was told by some that it was but a pleasant pastime and would never be of any real value to me. After four terms of the General Language courses I had a broader outlook on life in many different ways.

"In General Language (one) I studied habits of the prehistoric man; the origin of writing including the cuneiform writing of the Babylonians and hieroglyphics of the Egyptians; how our alphabet came down to us; and the different invasions into England (Great Britain) from which the English of today descended. All of these facts helped me in history, English, and civics.

"Then General Language (two) and (three). In these two courses I was given an assorted but clear introduction into different languages and the country which speaks it. The different songs we were taught to sing and facts learned make me have a more kindly and closer feeling of friendship for foreign countries. These courses help I think in deciding what courses in languages to pursue.

"Then General Language (four) is what I think the most delightful and uplifting course of all, 'Classic Myths.' Everyone likes fairy tales and to study fascinating stories which one can find on buildings, in paintings, advertisements, and most any place is something really delightful as well as educational. This course helped me in English and Biology.

"All in all, of all courses I have taken in high school, the one I will remember longest and get the most enjoyment from is General Language and I only wish the course was extended through (five) and (six) too.

"Then too I have noticed that the members of the class work together better and with more enjoyment than in most classes. I think the reason for this is that when an interesting lesson that is not too long is given to the class and then the next day it is discussed in class,

everyone learns more and if someone has been absent he doesn't just miss the lesson and go on but hears the class discussion and is informed of all that went on while he was gone. Then too all are allowed to make up tests, raise their marks by bringing in interesting articles, and giving book reports. This gives everyone a fair chance."

It would not be proper to talk of the pupils, subject-matter, and methods and conclude without mentioning the teachers. Who shall teach general language? Preferably the Latin teacher, but of course any teacher who is trained in languages and has a real liking for teaching and a deep sympathy with children can make a success of it. It is hard work; the instructor must be on his toes every minute; and his patience must be inexhaustible. On the other hand, the rewards for the effort are great. Since the pupils of lower intelligence are attending the high school in increasing numbers, suitable work must be provided for them, and the language department has as much to offer as any other department, if not more.

MODERN LANGUAGE STUDY*

To the Editor of *The New York Times*:

Dr. Carleton Brown of New York University is quoted as telling the members of the Modern Language Association of America that in many of the attacks on the castle of education "the foreign label is easily discernible."

This is a concise and accurate statement of the weakness of current American educational theory, and in matters involving critical analysis we are too apt to import our ideas from Europe without consideration of American needs.

At the very time when the Nazi government has reduced the gymnasium to something below the level of a high school, President Hutchins of the University of Chicago advocates the degradation of the American college to the level of a gymnasium. Two surveys now in progress—a national project under the American Council of Education, and a State project under the New York Regents, both financed by the General Education Board—are likely to lead to similar conclusions, as the influence of the University of Chicago is strong in both. Opposition to the modern languages in high school and college comes from these sources. The theory that they are not needed in a "society-centered curriculum," to quote Dr. Brown again, is really a rationalization of the fact that modern languages are not recognized in higher studies in Europe.

The conditions in Europe, however, are entirely different from those in the United States. Modern languages are taught at a much earlier stage in education across the water, because international pressures compel Europeans to be familiar with at least two modern languages besides their own. This need in America, though it exists, is by no means so immediate, and the study of modern languages is therefore with us a cultural rather than a vocational requisite.

Surely at the present time, if ever, a knowledge of modern languages can be defended as essential in a society-centered curriculum. Only a parochial view of society would limit us to American frontiers. Thus the advocates of the modern languages, among whom I am glad to enroll, need not retreat to "individualism" as a justification of their branch of learning.

The success and importance of the modern languages in the colleges for women are due to their recognition as instruments of internationalism. Foreign study and travel, international clubs, the use of the living language in drama and composition, all provide a most important element in the cultural atmosphere of the institution, and one worthy of the best professional guidance.

Even the proponents of the logical and metaphysical aspects of philosophy as the core of a university curriculum must concede the necessity of expert training in the various modern languages in which philosophy and science have been developed, as the verbal element in the idiom of philosophical thought must inevitably precede its comprehension.

Whether child-centered, curriculum-centered, or society-centered, the modern American

* Reprinted from the *New York Times*, January 3, 1937.

needs at least one modern language not his own in his mental equipment. It is probably true that linguistic study has occupied too great a share of the time of the secondary school. Including the study of the native language, many students have hitherto brought to college from eleven to thirteen out of the sixteen-year units, into which the four-year high-school course has been divided, of linguistic study. History and science have been the chief sufferers, and doubtless this situation should be corrected by a more equitable division of the time of the student.

Moreover, it may well be questioned whether foreign language instruction has produced results commensurate with the time spent. Of this, modern language teachers themselves are well aware and have spent much time to restate and realign their objectives. Improvement has everywhere followed the adoption of these new aims. A Vassar student with one year's undergraduate study of German obtained the doctor's degree at a German-speaking university this year after only two years of study, attending all lectures and offering herself for the final examinations in the German language. The success of the junior year in foreign universities has proved the ability of American undergraduates to make full use of their modern training.

To sum up, modern languages are the indispensable instruments of internationalism, of comparative culture, and of the correction of chauvinism and parochialism in our national philosophy. They increase the vocabulary of thought as well as the literature of understanding. While recognizing that linguistic study is only one way to culture, American educators will be wisely advised in view of our geographical isolation to maintain modern languages on an equal footing with the social studies, the sciences, and the fine arts as one of the four main-traveled roads to culture.

HENRY NOBLE MACCRACKEN,
President, Vassar College

Poughkeepsie, N. Y., Dec. 31, 1936.

THE CASE FOR SUBJECTS IN THE CURRICULUM*

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THE traditional breaking up of the curriculum into subjects each of which was kept in a water-tight compartment, unrelated to the others and unrelated to the child's life, has resulted in a natural and wholesome reaction. This reaction has led to "activities programs," "project method," and "integration."

Like most reactions, this one has swung to the opposite extreme. It is supposed that one center of interest must be the basis for all of the child's work, and that it is a violation of sound psychology and of the child's rights, to have a period in the day set aside for arithmetic and another period for spelling. I remember visiting a school that boasted of its "centers of interest." In one grade the "center of interest" for the month was fish. There the history had to do with the history of fishing; the geography, with fisheries; the reading was all on fish and fisher folk; the compositions were on the same subject; the spelling words were chosen from this field; even the arithmetic problems all dealt with the price and weight and quantities of fish. This story may sound fishy, but I assure you it is true.

More intelligent attempts at integration use some one activity—sometimes a chance activity resulting from the interest of a child—on which the whole class can center. As the children carry this activity or project forward, the teacher sees to it that they do not avoid any arithmetical, literary, artistic, or other implications—in fact she often drags in these implications by the heels. When she doesn't, she guiltily smuggles in an arithmetic period or a spelling period and says nothing about it.

A complete interrelation of all things a child studies is unimportant and unnecessary. Life

* Reprinted from the *Journal of the National Education Association*, vol. XXVI, no. 1 (January, 1937), p. 5.

itself is full of separate, unrelated activities. We adults go to a movie or a dance. We read a book, attend a luncheon or dinner. We go to a concert or a baseball game. We do certain jobs that are parts of our vocation. We find no disintegration of our lives as a result of our divergent and diverse activities. On the contrary, the variety adds zest to living.

What is really important is that each thing we teach the child be integrated with his own life and his experience. It must fulfil some need; it must give expression to some impulse; it must contribute to some thinking. It must, in short, have significance. But the significance of one thing may be quite different from that of another, and no harm whatever is done by variety of experience, provided that the separation is between one subject and another, and not a separation between the subject and the child.

In mastering a skill, readiness and ripeness are necessary. Any test shows a wide divergence between the slowest and the fastest child in a class—the range is usually at least four years. To assume that one center of interest, one project, is going to result in learning processes that fit equally children of widely disparate stages of maturity is to ignore the facts.

In mastering a skill certain technics need practice, and the amount of practice needed varies with individuals. If all children in a class are trying to master the same technic at the same time with the same amount of drill, even tho it has been "motivated" by a project or "integrated" with the other subjects in a center of interest, the children are deprived of their right to wait until they are ripe before being required to try to master a topic. The psychology of learning is ignored.

In mastering knowledge, a certain order and organization are needed. So, too, are certain foundations. To give a bit of knowledge here and a bit of knowledge there, because they happen to be related to a project or a center of interest, is to fail in the orderly development that characterizes the thinking of an educated person.

It is manifestly absurd to suppose it contrary to sound education to be systematic and orderly, to suppose that thoroughness is the antithesis of good learning. Yet the time has come when a person almost has to apologize for a kind of education that develops a subject in an orderly, systematic manner.

The answer does not lie in a reversion to the old compartmentalization of the curriculum, but neither does it lie in an attempt at complete correlation and the kind of "integration" which assumes that all subjects must be integrated with each other and with some center of interest or grow out of some one activity.

The solution lies in having a basic course required of each child as he reaches the right stage of development, and including in that course only those items which really function or can be made to function in the experience and training of the child. Each of these things—call them subjects if you wish—should be taught in relation to the child's life and interests. They should be taught when the child is ready to use them thru having his interest aroused and when he has reached that mental age found by research to be most suitable to the learning of a given topic. And in doing this, the school may well use a number of the old categories—arithmetic is, after all, quite different from social science, and spelling is not related to creativeness and initiative.

On the other hand, any balanced educational program must provide a rich background of experience and activities. It must provide, thru electives and thru opportunities in connection with common enterprises or activities, a chance for each child to find and follow his own special interests and abilities; a chance for him to use originality, creativeness, and initiative; and most decidedly opportunities for him to work cooperatively with his fellows and to develop a sound social consciousness. These are basic parts of his education. But so, too, is the mastery of these fundamental skills and that body of common knowledge which are essential to living in an organized society.

SIGNIFICANT TRENDS IN AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION*

JOHN L. TILDSLEY

Assistant Superintendent of Schools, City of New York

* * *

I SELECT as the trend which promises to do most for the beneficial reconstruction of our secondary education:

1. Making the individual more directly and consciously the center of the educational process. The adoption of this concept as a working policy is responsible for the intensive study of the nature of the child, his potentialities, abilities, likes and dislikes, his needs as an individual entity and as a member of a social group. Possibly the most far-reaching discovery as an outcome of this study is that every child is capable of creativeness in varying degrees in some field; that the great work of the school is to discover this definite trend in the child as early in his life as possible and then so to direct the forces to which he shall be exposed as to make it possible for him to realize his utmost self, not through fostering this bent as a thing in itself, but as the most promising center of interest in the child around which shall be brought to bear the other influences needed for his full realization. Out of this study of the child as creative has grown an enlarged concept of creativeness. We as schoolmasters are no longer limiting creativeness to writing poems or music, painting pictures, making scenery, staging a play or acting, but we realize that anyone is creative who makes a better article than has been made before, who improves a process, who conducts a school or teaches a class so as to make it more vitally affect the well-being of its pupils, who runs a business, a city, state or national government or any portion thereof in such a way as to increase the general well-being or who administers a home so as to make it a place of rich and joyful living. Therefore there is no subject in the secondary curriculum that cannot be so taught as to aid in the development in each pupil of this generalized power of creativeness. More than anyone else our teachers of art have shown us the way. They have sought to free the child from inhibiting fears, the fear of comparison with the work of others. They therefore no longer set him to copying casts and the work of great artists, a process which inevitably brings home to him too strongly his lack of power.

2. Out of this desirable technique of the teacher of art and of other teachers who are seeking to prevent this creative urge from being crushed out or crowded out or snuffed out has come a concept of freedom, so widely adopted that it has become a serious trend, arising first in the so-called progressive schools and rapidly being taken over by other schools. They view freedom as something with which the child starts his education, whereas it is something with which he should end it. Freedom is an achievement; it comes not by inheritance nor as a free gift. It must always be won. As I tell the boys, the freest man I see in action is William T. Tilden on a tennis court. A ball comes. He does not hesitate an instant but hits it with complete abandon and back it goes to hit the line at the extreme corner. That is freedom. It took years of study and constant practice to attain that freedom. Freedom is born of discipline, the exercising and direction of all one's forces, physical, mental and willing until at any instant they can be focused at a given point for the realization of a clearly foreseen objective. Before he has so disciplined his powers as to be truly free, we in our secondary schools are allowing the boy or girl of thirteen or fourteen to select the experiences to which he is to be exposed during his four years in school, experiences which are so largely to determine what he is to become. For there is a growing tendency to hand him an "à la carte" course of study and allow him to choose what he ignorantly will in accordance with the popular philosophy of education which tells us: (1) that "The necessity of educating the child for the new

* Excerpts from a paper read at the annual meeting of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Atlantic City, N. J., November 27, 1936.

emerging social order largely nullifies the value of past educational experience as a guide to action for the administrator and the teacher . . ."; (2) "That all subjects equally well taught are equally valuable"; (3) "That the child's manifested interests must be the governing consideration in determining what he shall study and that the child himself is qualified to decide what is best for him."

The answers to the questionnaire which some of you have sent me show that in twenty-two schools the trend is toward the free election by the students and in fourteen schools the trend is not toward free election. But if we include in this summary the forty-five high schools of New York City with their 250,000 pupils, the figures will show a much stronger trend toward free election. Until one year ago, these schools in addition to four units of English, three units of social science and two units of art, music and health-education for all students required a three-unit group in either modern languages, mathematics or science, an additional two-unit group in one of these subjects and two additional two-unit groups without limitation of subject. Now these requirements hold only for the academic course, but for the general course, over and beyond the required subjects of English, social science, music, art and health-education, the remaining nine units may be taken from any subject-groups. We have then sixty-seven schools showing a trend toward free election as against fourteen away from free election. In my judgment this move of the New York high schools toward the left grossly impairs the value of the high-school diploma and what is of vastly more consequence the value of the educational experience to which 250,000 boys and girls are to be exposed each year.

This growing trend toward free election of subjects by high-school boys and girls reflects itself in a tendency to choose the subjects that make less demand on the time and thought power of the students. For example, eleven schools report a trend toward increasing election of foreign languages while eighteen schools report a movement away from the choice of foreign language and generally they report a decline in Latin and the almost complete disappearance of Greek. For New York City, the following figures show the trend:

October 1917—Foreign language enrollment 64,595, school enrollment 62,820: 1.03 foreign languages per capita.

October 1936—Foreign language enrollment 158,380, school enrollment 258,633: .61 foreign languages per capita.

While the foreign language has increased from 64,595 to 158,380, 144.2%, Latin has grown from 15,665 to 22,468, or 43.6%. Its ratio to school enrollment has dropped from .25 per capita to .08.

Mathematics

In mathematics the trend is not so strong. Twelve schools report trend toward increased enrollment in mathematics, sixteen trend from mathematics, while nine report no change.

Science

Thirty-two schools report trend toward increased choice of science but two the opposite trend, while two report no change.

Social Science

Twenty-four schools report increased emphasis on social science.

Sixteen schools report no increased emphasis on social science.

Introduction of Non-Academic Subjects

Twenty-four schools reported that they had introduced such subjects.

Fifteen schools reported that they had not introduced such subjects.

Trend Toward or Away from the Academic Subjects

Nineteen schools reported trend toward academic subjects.

Fifteen schools reported trend away from academic subjects.

Six schools reported trend no perceptible change.

Trend Toward Definite, Enforced Requirements for Promotion and Graduation

Twenty-one schools reported trend in favor of such requirements.

Fourteen schools reported trend away from such requirements.

Two schools reported no change.

* * *

Permit me however to return to the subject of the growing policy of free choice of subjects by the high-school pupils and the resulting effects. I hope that you all have read President Hutchins' article in the November *Harpers*, on "What is a General Education?" He tells us: "If there are permanent studies which every person who wishes to call himself educated should master, if those studies constitute our intellectual inheritance, then those studies should be the center of the curriculum. They cannot be ignored because they are difficult or unpleasant or because they are almost entirely missing from our curriculum today. The child-centered school may be attractive to the child and no doubt is useful as a place in which the little ones may release their inhibitions and hence behave better at home. But educators cannot permit the students to dictate the course of study unless they are prepared to confess that they are nothing but chaperons supervising an aimless, trial and error process which is chiefly valuable because it keeps children from doing something worse. The free elective system as Mr. Eliot introduced it at Harvard and as Progressive Education adapted it to lower age-levels amounted to a denial that there was content to education. Since there was no content to education we might as well let students follow their own bent . . . This overlooks the fact that the aim of education is to connect man with man, to connect the present with the past and to advance the thinking of the race. If this is the aim of education, it cannot be left to the sporadic, spontaneous interests of children or even of undergraduates."

3. I am sure that a lot of us are deceiving ourselves. We say we are attempting to adapt our curriculum to the needs of our pupils? To what pupils? I shall not speak of the progressive schools, with which I have little direct contact. I will rather speak of the public high schools, with which I have had long and broad experience.

What is the real reason why, throughout the length and breadth of this land, our high schools are commonly adopting the system of free choice of subjects by their pupils? It is because they find themselves faced with the problem of what to do with some twenty or thirty or possibly forty per cent of their entering pupils who come to them with lying credentials stating that they have satisfactorily completed the work of the lower school, when they have not and in some cases never can. These pupils are incapable of doing, or at least they are not prepared to do, any work that has hitherto been conceived as secondary-school work. The principal therefore finds it necessary to emasculate the subjects, reduce the content, simplify the methods of teaching them, lessen their educational value, and then he discovers that these pupils cannot grasp even this mere shadow of the once honored subject, so he introduces new subjects and, unwilling to incur the charge of discriminating against these boys and girls of low-learning capacity, he brings in a system of free electives for everybody. By this device and by the emasculation of subjects which are open to election by everyone, he makes it possible for his potentially able pupils to work to but a small measure of their capacity and in many cases he effectively dwarfs their growth. Few if any of them in our high schools of this section are building effective habits of work. The real reason why they dodge Latin and mathematics is not because, as is frequently alleged, these subjects have little value for preparing boys for a changing world and a new social order. It is because they are demandful subjects and the boys and girls are ease-loving.

As chairman of the Pulitzer Committee which awards ten Pulitzer Scholarships to graduates of our high schools each year, I interviewed some forty of our ablest graduates of June last. I discovered that boys with an average in Regents examinations for the entire four-year course of ninety-eight per cent had never studied more than two hours in any day during their high-school life. These boys were born with the capacity for growth that could make them

the leaders of the nation. With such educational experiences is there much probability that they *will* become the leaders of the nation?

Does anyone dare deny that I have described an almost dominant trend of the past ten years in secondary education? I have by implication at least connected this most unfortunate trend with an unwarranted conception of freedom.

4. May I connect this trend with another trend, for many years dominant, now, I am happy to say, showing signs of waning, the trend among teachers, principals and superintendents to accept as axiomatic the doctrine that there is no such thing as general training; that all training is specific, that there is little or no transfer except in situations which are almost identical. I believe no educational doctrine ever enunciated has been so damaging to the cause of education as this. And the interesting thing is that the experience of every one of us belied this doctrine. If we had but used our thinking apparatus and reviewed our life experiences we should have realized the essential untruth in the statement. But we allowed ourselves to be overawed by a great name and the institution from which the doctrine came. But at least some good has come from it. We no longer believe in the magic of any subject as a means of education irrespective of the person by whom taught and the means employed in teaching it and we realize that we gain a larger measure of transfer as we bend our efforts consciously and deliberately to the bringing about of transfer. How could any one become broadly educated, that is, richly grown, if there were no transfer, no general training? We would spend all our life just acquiring a stock of skills and knowledges. Good teaching is hardly possible for one who does not believe in the possibility of general training. But I see this danger lessening.

5. I have detected another trend of increasing virulence during the past twenty years, the growing willingness, even eagerness of teachers, principals, superintendents, even of headmasters, to put their brains in pawn and to use in place of them the oracular pronouncements of professors of education. A professor discovers at this late date in the experience of the race that this is a changing world and that a New Social Order to be brought about by a group of Frontier Thinkers will soon be upon us, brought about I should rather say by a combination of these Frontier Thinkers and the enslaving machine; that these social changes necessitate a revolution in the educational process; that all the old, including the age-long experience of the race, must be consigned to the scrap heap; that all that is worth studying is the here and now, and therefore the here and now, dignified by the flattering title Social Science, must supplant all other subjects and become the core of the curriculum. The marvelous thing is that teachers, principals and superintendents do swallow all this in great chunks and all we hear in the schools is "education for leisure," "education for a changing world," "education for a New Social Order," where evidently mathematical laws and mathematical thinking will not be valid, since there is no proposal that their study is to be continued.

It was but a few years ago that a professor of educational economics announced another belated discovery, namely that education never has and never can raise a person's earning power, basing his theorem upon an invalid theory of value, namely that value depends solely upon scarcity. If this theory of value be accepted, then of course the more people you educate, the less scarce they become and hence less valuable. He failed to see however that the more you educate a given person beyond a certain point, the scarcer an article he becomes and hence, in accordance even with his theory of value, the more valuable he would become. As a matter of fact that is true. For who can calculate the value of a Pasteur, of an Einstein, the rarest of men? It is fortunate that Boards of Education did not accept the new discovery, else they would have closed our high schools, for they all had been laboring under the delusion that education does commonly raise a man's earning power. I am sure it did mine. No one but a professor of education would have found an audience for such a thesis so contradictory to our experience.

6. The illustrations I have just cited are additional reasons why a trend which is looming larger each month and really becoming a great threat to the well-being of our public schools

ought to be seriously considered by such a body as this. I refer to the growing tendency of State Commissioners of Education to set requirements for licenses or for certificates as teachers or principals of secondary schools which include so many semester-hours in definitely labeled professional courses in educational theory as to make it exceedingly difficult for the graduate of a liberal arts college to qualify for teaching in a secondary school, a policy which will reduce still further the supply of richly-trained, richly-living men and women for the service of the high school. The replacement of such very human teachers by the mechanistically-trained product of the teacher-training institution is a danger on a par with the general lowering of the standards of education for our high-school boys and girls and will further accelerate that degeneration in the educational process I have just noted. Permit me to quote Professor Charles H. Judd, Dean of the School of Education of the University of Chicago: "I am compelled by my observation of teachers to deplore the fact that such education as is now administered in teacher-training institutions does not stimulate those who attend such institutions to independent intellectual activity of a vigorous type in their professional career." (*School Review*, April, 1936, p. 257.)

7. There is a general trend toward giving the Social Sciences, rather than the Social Studies, a larger place in the secondary-school curriculum, even to the extent of making them the core of the curriculum, or rather a twin core with English. I cannot be accused of bias when I take the position that there is a very great danger of an emphasis on the social studies not warranted by the probable growth in the student's intellectual power resulting from such studies as are now carried on in many schools, since this is the field of my own study, teaching, and chief interest of the past forty years. You may have observed that I substituted the term social studies for the term social science with which I began my statement. I find among the younger teachers of the social studies a very noticeable tendency to be contemptuous of the value of the experience of the race for the thousands of years of the past. Due in part to the influence of the self-styled Frontier Thinkers of Teachers College who write and speak on Education for a Changing World and Education for the New Social Order, and to the Progressive Schools, our young teachers in this and other fields believe in centering their attention on the here and now and throwing into the discard all study of the past. Any mastery of the Augustan Age or of the Age of Pericles, or even of the period of the French Revolution, they regard as pure pedantry, as stated to me only last week by a really very able young teacher of economics. Whereas that very wise educator, philosopher and humanist, Felix Adler, shortly before his death, and Professor Salvemini agreed with me that an intensive study of Roman History from the rise of the Gracchi to the death of Augustus would shed more light on the problems confronting America today than would the same amount of time spent on the study of the present, here in New York City, employing the method of direct observation advocated by the progressives of today. One of the most fruitful studies of my life was one I made in my graduate year at Princeton on what was the reason for the change in England's attitude toward the French Revolution between the years 1789-95, a change in attitude which resulted in changing the face of the world, the effects of which are with us still. I studied this a hundred years later and was able to avail myself of the formulated observations and conclusions of trained scholars. Our young teachers of the present, with no previous study by their pupils, would turn them loose in New York City at age fourteen to go forth in the streets and from direct observation and inquiry discover just what is the disease and what its cure from which America today is suffering. If you don't accept this, read Everett's "Challenge to Secondary Education," with its serious proposal that "of the six periods of the school day, five should be devoted to a study of contemporary society and the sixth period may be devoted to learning the trombone or aesthetic dancing, or the few who are so inclined may study mathematics, foreign language or science, although they would more wisely wait till they actually needed these subjects for actual use, for example in the graduate school."

At my age, I must risk the charge of approaching senility when I say that the disdain of

these frontier educators for the past is in large measure due to their ignorance of the past. They simply do not know the history of the race. Without experience with industrial processes of the present or adequate knowledge of the history of industry through the ages, they announce that the immediate future is to be so vastly different from the immediate past, due to technical developments, that boys and girls must be kept in school till they are twenty-one or possibly twenty-five, no matter what the effect on them or on others of this policy, because forsooth man is now the slave, not the master, of the machine and of techniques. He is the creature of not the master of both the production and the distribution of the product. If they but knew their industrial revolution, 1780 to 1850, they would not talk such nonsense.

In my college days, we students of social science were steeped in early institutions, gained from DuCoulange, Morgan, Westermarck, a little later from Sumner. I rarely find a young teacher of social studies these days who has read these great books. If he had he would not be so sure that human nature is being so transformed during his lifetime, that the education of the past which produced so many great intellectual leaders of the race has nothing of value for the revolutionized present, here in the Middle States and Maryland, though it may still suffice for decadent France and England.

You may remember twenty-four of your schools reported a tendency to make the Social Studies the core of the curriculum, whereas sixteen schools reported no tendency in that direction. Presumably the twenty-four schools are not substituting the Social Studies as a core for Latin or mathematics merely because they are easier but because they have been led to believe that these studies are more valuable for use in preparing a youth for his duties as a citizen. What does the intelligent citizen need beyond all else? Critical mindedness, the power of analysis, imagination, objectivity, a social point of view, a good will. What assurance have we that the Social Studies now that we have regained our faith in general training will engender these desirable qualities in our boys and girls any better than will the mathematics or science that will inevitably be displaced for the abler students by the adoption of a four-unit program in social science? As I view a core-subject, it should consist of a series of steps, each demanding from the student a higher degree of thought and greater intensity of effect, and each higher stage resting on the one below, as is the case with four years of Latin or four years of mathematics. The Social Studies as commonly taught do not meet these specifications

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I do not wish to be misunderstood. I am not contending for one instant that it was left to this generation to discover what is most worth while in education. There have been great schoolmasters in every age for thousands of years who have fitted their boys for effective, rich and noble living, going back even to Cheiron on the hills of Thessaly. Does the annual report of the headmaster of the most modern progressive school gain lustre when placed alongside Pericles' report of 415 B.C. to the Athenian parents, mourning their sons, as he tells what the "School of Greece" had made of these sons?

So I welcome this from one of your members: "The fact of the matter is that there is nothing whatever in our experience or practice that would be of interest to any audience at a teachers' convention. They want to hear about the spectacular by-ways that have been discovered for arriving at strength by circumventing work. . . . We are making no attempt to organize the society of the future, and our main principal method of preparing the boys for whatever society that may be is to teach them to work hard and to think independently, and for that purpose we are sticking to the classics, mathematics, the modern languages, English, science and history." Allow me to add art and music and I would say, Amen! It is the very curriculum I would urge for our schools for bright boys and girls. Given teachers of power and with an understanding of what is involved in making the growing of the characteristics we have cited the dominating goal of the educational process, there is no necessity for any change in such a curriculum or any revolutionary change in methodology to produce the product we have been urging. May I add this note, that some of our principals would delegate all this, the very life-blood of education, to the extra-curricular activities. These have done much for the

development of many of these characteristics. Woodrow Wilson once said "The sideshow has swallowed up the main tent." But the instant we realize that the bringing about of desirable changes in the very being of the boy, not the pouring or even kneading in of knowledges and the training in skills, is the main show in education, that instant we realize that the classroom itself, with the library and laboratories, must be made in larger measure than ever before the main tent.

* * *

Am I cherishing a vain hope that some day my grandchild shall attend a meeting of this association at which some one shall report of your schools as Learned did of the schools of Europe: "The student in these schools, along with the intellectual quality which is developed by hard and constant work, acquires also pleasure and a satisfaction in the intellectual life. The quality of the educational process in the school must be a large factor in determining the sincerity and vigor of the intellectual life to which its students attain. The mainspring of education in (shall I insert the Middle States and Maryland?) is an immemorial reverence for learning. The whole body of human knowledge and of scholarly achievement is conceived as constituting the supreme achievement of the race, to be preserved, increased and handed on to posterity as its most precious possession." Shall my grandchild hear this heartening report? It rests with you.

• Notes and News •

THE JUNIOR YEAR AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PARIS

THROUGH membership in foreign study groups which have been established by different American colleges it is now possible for American college students to spend the Junior Year in France and pursue courses for which most colleges will grant full credit toward the degree of Bachelor of Arts. The program of work is not an easy one and only those should undertake it whose record at college has been uniformly high. A minimum of *four* years of French, two of which must have been taken in college, is also necessary. The courses available for American college juniors are limited to the general fields of literature, economics, philosophy, history, and the French language.

Advantages that may be secured from a year's study in France are: (1) ability to read, write, speak, and understand French with ease; (2) preparation to teach French, or to fill government or business positions in French-speaking countries; (3) broadening of one's point of view growing out of a year's study of a civilization other than one's own; (4) opportunity to become familiar with French art, architecture, opera, and drama; (5) all these things without loss of time in the college course and at an expense not much greater than that for the average calendar year at home.

The cost of the year, July to July, is about \$1,300, which includes ocean travel and all other *necessary* expenses except clothing and incidentals.

A limited number of competitive scholarships of \$300 each have been established to assist highly recommended students who cannot afford the full cost of the year abroad. The scholarships will be awarded only to those who are to be members of organized and supervised groups approved by the committee. Applications for these scholarships must be filled out and filed with the student's credentials at the office of the Institute of International Education not later than April 15th, 1937.

For information as to the attitude of your college in regard to the above plan consult the head of your French Department. For particulars about the award of scholarships and application blanks, address the Committee on Undergraduate Study Abroad, Institute of International Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York.

JUNIOR YEAR IN MUNICH

THE Junior Year in Munich, which suffered a severe setback when it was discontinued by the University of Delaware in 1933, is recovering with surprising vigor. There are thirty-four Juniors in Munich this year, representing some twenty-five different colleges and universities, and, in spite of wars and rumors of wars, all signs seem to point to an increased registration for 1937-38. This success is largely due to the efforts of Dr. Edmund E. Miller, formerly of the German Department of the University of Delaware, who in 1935-36 courageously set out with Mrs. Miller to conduct a Junior Year in Munich on his own responsibility, with the help of the German staff and administration in Munich but without the support of any American organization. That, in view of present political and economic conditions in Europe, may have seemed a daring venture, but interest in international education is keen and is growing apace, and the German Junior Year has evidently come to stay. A meeting of the German Junior Year Council and its Advisory Committee, held at Richmond on December 29, was attended by almost a hundred enthusiastic representatives of the German departments of various colleges and universities.

The need of an American organization to manage and direct the academic work of the Junior Year in Munich, as well as its finances, became apparent last summer and led, on December 28, to the incorporation of an Executive Council under the presidency of Professor Camillo von Klenze, Professor Emeritus of German in the College of the City of New York and founder of the Junior Year in Munich in 1930. This Council consists of Professor von Klenze, President W. A. Neilson of Smith College, Dr. Stephen Duggan, Director of the Institute of International Education in New York, Dr. Wilbur K. Thomas, Director of the Carl Schurz Memorial Foundation in Philadelphia, Grace M. Bacon, Professor of German at Mount Holyoke, G. S. Dickinson, Professor of Music at Vassar, with the undersigned as Vice-President and Secretary. It will be assisted in its work by an Advisory Committee, consisting of representatives from all interested colleges and universities.

The Council will supervise and direct the academic work of the Juniors in Munich through its Director, Dr. Miller, who is now employed by the Council, and will undertake to guarantee to American colleges that this work will be in every respect, both quantitatively and qualitatively, the equivalent of a full year's work at home. It will further assume responsibility for chaperonage and housing of the students, and will endeavor to establish the project on a firm financial basis.

The backbone of the academic work in Munich is made up of an intensive required course in the German Language and Composition (three hours a week for thirty-five weeks) and a number of electives, including, as basic courses: German Literature (six hours), German History (three hours), History of Art (three hours), and History of Music (three hours). In addition, there are supplementary courses in the German Drama, the Opera, Music, and Art, utilizing the museums, theatres and opera-houses of Munich as well as the many art treasures in southern Germany which are easily accessible from Munich. All these courses, with the exception of the Language course, are given by members of the faculty of the University of Munich (both full professors and Dozenten), but are arranged and organized according to the American plan, with required attendance, quizzes, term papers, semester examinations and grades. With the consent of the home college, the juniors will, however, also be permitted to take one or two of the regular university lecture-courses given for German students, and the Junior Year organization provides tutors to assist them in this kind of work.

The average total cost to the student, from New York to New York, September 23 to August 15, is \$1,070, which includes everything but spending money and special optional vacation trips (some of this year's group, for instance, are spending the Christmas vacation in Italy with their Professor of the History of Art). The Finance Committee of the Council is undertaking to raise money for scholarships for deserving students who cannot pay all of the cost, as well as for a guarantee fund to meet any emergency arising in case of unforeseen disturbances in the exchange market or of war.

Money is, at present, our greatest need, and we solicit cooperation and contributions from all who are interested in this project. In particular, we would like to urge German departments everywhere to bring this undertaking before prospective donors of scholarships, and to set before them its inestimable value to the student, to the study of German in America, to future international understanding and the cause of peace. We hope to see the day when every college in the land will be provided with a scholarship to send a junior to Germany every year.

MAX DIEZ

Bryn Mawr College,
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania

PREMEDICAL REQUIREMENTS AT WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY

THE Medical School of Western Reserve University has decided to drop its formal requirement of foreign language credits as a prerequisite for admission (beginning with the class entering in 1937) and to leave these to the judgement of the undergraduate faculties. This step is taken in the interest of simplification of the demands which the medical schools make on undergraduate training, and in consonance with the fundamental policy of not hampering the programs of the undergraduate colleges in such cultural studies as are not immediately essential to the medical course. It should not be interpreted as minimizing the value of language study in general culture. Professionally, some familiarity with the classical languages facilitates the correct understanding of medical terms, and a reading knowledge of any of the foreign languages in which medical treatises are written widens the horizon of the student and physician. However, experience has shown that they are not essential. Indeed, the formal language courses do not insure such intimate familiarity with these languages as to make them of much real use as tools in the study or practice of medicine, and the extension of journals and abstract journals in English makes their professional use less important than was formerly the case, except for those who devote themselves to research. (From an official announcement.)

THE NATIONAL HOME LIBRARY

THE National Home Library Foundation recently announced its plans for the distribution of a million copies of new books of special interest to educators, to be made available at twenty-five cents per volume. Distribution of these books, published on a non-profit basis, will begin immediately to all sections of the country. Titles have been approved by an advisory board of sixty-six of the most distinguished names in the arts and sciences, including James Truslow Adams, Eugene O'Neill, Louis Untermeyer, William Allen White, Dorothy Canfield Fisher, and Professor John Livingston Lowes. These books are beautifully bound in cloth and printed in large, clear type on a fine grade of paper. The Foundation will extend special discounts to educators on all quantity orders.

Titles now available include: *Horace Mann: His Ideas and Ideals*, by Joy Elmer Morgan, including Horace Mann's famous Lecture on Education, and his Letter to School Children, hitherto inaccessible to teachers; *The Odyssey of Homer*, translated by Samuel Butler, a remarkably live and readable translation of Homer's great classic; *Democracy in Denmark*, by Josephine Goldmark and Mrs. Louis D. Brandeis, which describes the development of the splendid Folk High Schools and the spread of the cooperative movement as factors in Denmark's economic recovery; *The Long Road*, by Dr. Arthur E. Morgan; *The Complete Poetical Works of John Keats*; and *Jefferson, Corporations and the Constitution*, by Dr. Charles A. Beard, dean of American historians. Orders should be addressed to the National Home Library Foundation, Dupont Circle Building, Washington, D. C.

DR. PADÍN RETURNS

DR. JOSÉ PADÍN is so well known in this country and has so many friends in the teaching profession that the news of his resignation as Commissioner of Education in Puerto Rico and his

return to the editorial staff of D. C. Heath and Company on January 1, 1937 will undoubtedly be of interest to the readers of the *Modern Language Journal*.

Dr. José Padín is a native of Puerto Rico, but was educated in this country and was graduated from Haverford College in 1907. After graduate studies at Haverford and Columbia University, he returned to Puerto Rico, where he occupied several important positions in the school system and was made Assistant Commissioner of Education in 1916. In the following year he came to New York as editor of the Heath Spanish-American publications, a position which he continued to fill until 1930. In that year he was appointed Commissioner of Education of Puerto Rico. In addition to his duties as Commissioner Dr. Padín served also at various times as Acting Governor and as President of the University. His distinguished services in reorganizing the educational system of Puerto Rico have not only brought him the gratitude of his countrymen, but have been recognized through the granting of a number of honorary degrees—LL.D. from Haverford College in 1931, Litt.D. from the University of Puerto Rico in 1933, and Pd.D. from Dartmouth College in 1934. Upon resuming his connection with the Heath editorial staff, Dr. Padín's work will center in their modern language and Latin-American publications.

The *Journal* felicitates the house of Heath on the return of this distinguished educator to the service of the modern foreign language teaching craft, and at the same time welcomes back an old friend.

BALTIMORE'S NEW SUPERVISOR

MISS MARGUERITE ZOUCK, vice-principal of the Eastern High School, Baltimore, Maryland, and a well-known modern language teacher, has been appointed acting Supervisor of Modern Languages in the Junior and Senior High Schools of Baltimore. For the present Miss Zouck will retain her post as vice-principal of Eastern High School. From 1923 until her appointment to the vice-principalship in 1929, Miss Zouck was Supervisor of French in the Junior High Schools of Baltimore.

The *Journal* congratulates the Baltimore City School system on the appointment of such a highly regarded and able teacher and supervisor to this important position.

ROMANIC REVIEW

At the beginning of its twenty-eighth year, the *Romanic Review* is undergoing a reorganization. Professor John L. Gerig has resigned as editor but will continue to act in an advisory capacity. Under the general editorship of Professor Horatio Smith, the *Review* will become the publication of the Department of Romance Languages in Columbia University. The advisory board consists of Professors John L. Gerig, Federico de Onís, Henri Muller, Dino Bigongiari, Arthur Livingston and Louis Cons. Dr. Justin O'Brien will serve as secretary. The business management will be in the hands of the publishers, the Columbia University Press, under whose direction the typography and general physical appearance are being somewhat revised.

AWARDS FOR TEACHERS AND STUDENTS OF ITALIAN

THE Italian Government again offers, through an American Committee on Awards, prizes for excellence in the study of the Italian language. The prizes will consist of books, to be awarded at Commencement time at colleges and universities. The Italian Government further offers, through the same Committee, free trips to Italy to teachers of Italian, as well as to college students for excellence in the study of the Italian language and for high general scholastic standing. The students to be selected for the Summer of 1937 will be men students. A booklet containing the rules and regulations governing these two classes of awards of free educational trips may be obtained from the chairman of the Committee, Dean Mario E. Cosenza, the Casa Italiana, Columbia University, New York City.

• Meetings of Associations •

RESOLUTION

(ADOPTED BY THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF THE STATE OF NEW JERSEY IN
TRIBUTE TO THE MEMORY OF MARGARET B. HOLZ, LATE PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCI-
ATION AND HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES OF NEW
JERSEY STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE OF MONTCLAIR.)

WHEREAS, in the death of MARGARET B. HOLZ, Head of the Department of Foreign Languages at Montclair State Teachers College, former President of this Modern Language Association of the State of New Jersey, founder and director of Foreign Student Exchange between the State College at Montclair and teachers' colleges abroad, delegate to the National Federation of Modern Foreign Language Teachers, author, lecturer, educator, not only this Association but higher education throughout this state and the nation has sustained a deep and irreparable loss, we, her associates and friends, present these resolutions in tribute to her life and the work to which she devoted that life and for which, there can be little doubt, she died her untimely death.

Miss Holz was one of the great women of our time—one of the great women of all time in the history of higher education in our field. In the brief eight years that she had been professor of Foreign Languages at Montclair she had made her department a great force in the state and the nation: known wherever her students have carried her high standards of excellence; organized so efficiently that it will continue to follow the lines she laid down, animated by her spirit and inspired by the vision she had for it.

Of broad culture and thorough scholarship, genuine human understanding, faith in our profession and belief in its ideals, her dynamic personality lifted to higher levels the aims and teaching of modern languages throughout the state.

But the cause that was her very life—the cause she felt to be the ultimate aim of all our foreign language teaching: the creation of international understanding and good will through actual acquaintance and personal contact with other peoples—this was the work that made her a figure of international significance. Alone and single-handed she started this unique relation with foreign centers of teacher-training both on this continent and in Europe—this Student Exchange which for the past seven years has sent the elect of our future language teachers for a year to the countries of their major fields: Mexico and Spain, Austria and Germany, Switzerland and France; and in return received the future teachers of those foreign lands for a year of American student life at Montclair. No one can estimate the vital importance of this interchange of actual daily living and thinking among the future leaders of this war-menaced world.

And that cause for which she gave the utmost and supreme devotion—that is what must and shall endure. The work of her hands, the work of her mind and heart is established; it is for us to see that it goes on; that international peace through mutual understanding and knowledge shall not fail.

Resolved, therefore, that this association of the teachers of modern foreign languages in the state of New Jersey hereby place upon permanent record our profound sense of loss in the death of Margaret B. Holz, great teacher and great leader, that we extend to her family our deepest sympathy, and that we consecrate our profession anew to the cause for which she gave her life.

ETHEL L. LITTLEFIELD

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF GERMAN

THE fifth annual meeting of the American Association of Teachers of German was held at the Hotel John Marshall, Richmond, Virginia, on December 28, 1936. Not only was the meeting notable for breaking all previous attendance records but it was likewise remarkable for the sustained interest throughout in a program which for copiousness left little to be desired. The addresses for the most part dealt with various specific means of creating interest in the study of German. For the maintenance of interest emphasis was specifically placed upon substantial appeal of a genuinely intellectual content of the classroom material and upon the personality of the teacher, his devotion and courage, stimulated, sustained and supported by sound scholarship, deliberate training and self-discipline (*Liebe, Wissen und Können, Mut*).

The newly elected officers are: *President*, Frank H. Reinsch, University of California at Los Angeles; *First Vice-President*, Christian F. Hamff, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia; *Second Vice-President*, Miss Helen Ott, Troy, N. Y.; *Third Vice-President*, Mrs. Claire S. Schradieck, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, O.; *Members of the Executive Council*, Samuel Krosch, University of Minnesota, and John L. Kind, University of Tennessee.

At a meeting of the new Executive Council Professor Frank Mankiewicz of the College of the City of New York was appointed to succeed Professor E. W. Bagster-Collins of Teachers College, Columbia University, as Managing Editor of the *German Quarterly*, and Professor Curtis C. D. Vail of the University of Buffalo was appointed to the editorial staff as an Associate Editor.

A more detailed report of the meeting and a complete list of the membership of the Executive Council will appear in the *German Quarterly* and the *Monatshefte für deutschen Unterricht*.

EDWARD F. HAUCH
Secretary

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF FRENCH

THE American Association of Teachers of French held its tenth annual meeting at Richmond, Virginia on December 31, 1936 in conjunction with the Modern Language Association of America. The Executive Council met during the morning and its acts during the year were confirmed in the afternoon business session. Notable among these were the decision to sponsor again for 1937 summer scholarships for teaching members and to make permanent the policy of presenting the October and December issues of the *French Review* free to new members who subscribe for the next calendar year before the issue dates of those numbers.

At the afternoon session two pedagogical papers were read: "La Phonétique ça et là en Europe" by Anthony Constans, Birmingham-Southern College; and "The High Mortality in College Entrance French: Causes; Cure" by Hugo Giduz, University of North Carolina.

The Association reconvened at 6:30 for a subscription banquet at the Hotel John Marshall. After describing the remarkable growth of the society from sixteen to forty-one chapters in three years, President Lilly Lindquist called on Miss Edith Gartland, Vice President for the East, who spoke briefly. Two papers were then presented: "La Salle et les explorateurs pionniers français dans le sud-ouest des États-Unis," by Marcel Moraud, Rice Institute, Houston, Texas; and "Translating from English into French Verse," by F. Baldensperger of Harvard, who despite the English title spoke in French and read numerous examples of his translations.

Entertainment was provided by the newly-formed Virginia Chapter, which was host to the Association.

JAMES B. THARP
Secretary-Treasurer

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

A SHARP attack on what he called efforts to tear down established methods of teaching was made by Dr. Carleton Brown of New York University in an address before the Modern

Language Association of America at its annual meeting, held at Richmond and Williamsburg, Virginia, on December 29, 30, and 31, 1936.

Not only are organized efforts being made to modify the methods, he declared, but also to change the objectives of education in this country. In many of the "attacks on the castle" of education, Dr. Brown said, "The foreign label is easily discernible."

Replying to assertions that "secondary education should be organized in terms of a society-centered program in preference to either the child-centered or the curriculum-centered program," Dr. Brown declared: "This is truly a notable departure from individualism, either rugged or otherwise." "But," he asked, "are we yet prepared to accept the doctrine that education has as its fundamental purpose the service of the State rather than the development of the individual?"

The association adopted a resolution authorizing the president to appoint one or more persons to cooperate with other interested organizations "in combating propaganda of certain groups and associations opposed to the study of the languages in the secondary schools."

Honorary membership in the association was voted to Paul Hazard, Professor of Comparative Literature at the Collège de France; Andres Heusler of the University of Basel; and Daniel Jones of the University of London.

On the invitation of Northwestern University the convention will hold its 1937 meeting in Chicago.

Eduard Prokosch, Professor of German at Yale University, was elected president of the association. J. S. P. Tatlock of the University of California was named first vice-president, Dean Marjorie H. Nicholson of Smith College second vice-president and Karl Young of Yale representative to the American Council of Learned Societies from 1937 to 1941.

Three members chosen to the executive council were Professors Charles G. Osgood of Princeton, George F. Havens of Ohio State and Kenneth B. Murdock of Harvard.

—*New York Times*

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF ITALIAN

THE American Association of Teachers of Italian held its thirteenth annual meeting on December 30 and 31, 1936, at Richmond, Virginia. The "pranzo" which fittingly continued the tradition of conviviality, a feature of our annual reunions, was held at the Hotel Richmond on the evening of December 30 and was attended by upwards of forty members and friends.

In a brief address the retiring president, Herbert H. Vaughan, University of California, spoke of the effective work of the Italian government in encouraging the study of Italian through the activities of its consular representatives and aides. He also traced the history of the Association from its birth in 1923 to its incipient maturity, as it were, in 1936.

Among the actions taken were: a small appropriation to help defray the expenses of the foreign language program to be presented at the New Orleans meeting of the Department of Superintendence; the appointment of a committee to study the problem of text-books for the teaching of Italian; preliminary steps to extend the membership of the Association to include more secondary-school teachers; preliminary steps to establish regional chapters of the Association; the unanimous election to honorary membership of Professors Giulio Bertoni, Giovanni A. Cesareo, Benedetto Croce, Letterio di Francia, Guido Mazzoni, Attilio Momigliano, Vittoria Rossi, and Karl Vossler.

The following officers were unanimously elected to serve for 1937: *Honorary President*, Charles Hall Grandgent, Harvard University; *President*, Olin H. Moore, Ohio State University; *Vice-Presidents*, Frederika Blankner, Western Reserve University, and Michele de Filipis, University of California; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Camillo P. Merlino, University of Michigan; *Councilors*, Rudolph Altrocchi, University of California, Gustav Gruenbaum, Johns Hopkins University, and Agnes Riddell, Wheaton College.

CAMILLO P. MERLINO
Secretary

PENNSYLVANIA STATE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

THE Pennsylvania State Modern Language Association held its annual meeting in the Central High School, Harrisburg, on December 30, 1936. Mr. Lloyd L. Stutzman, Reading, presided. At the business session, several important posts on the Administrative Council and the representative on the National Federation were discussed. Since the President is elected in the odd years, nominations for this office were received, although the actual election will not be held until June, 1937. The business session was productive of excellent suggestions as to the extension of activities of the Association and the attendant increase in membership.

The general theme of the program was: "The Future of Modern Foreign Language Instruction in This Country." Dr. M. A. DeVitis, Professor of Spanish, University of Pittsburgh, discussed the subject from the standpoint of the university professor. He was very optimistic about the outlook for modern foreign languages and his timely words of encouragement will serve to stimulate the teachers who attended to greater efforts.

Dr. Wilton W. Blancké, Head of the Department of Foreign Languages, South Philadelphia High School for Boys, presented the case for the high schools. Dr. Blancké suggested above all a clarification of achievable objectives for language instruction. A great deal of the adverse criticism directed against the teaching of languages is the direct result of the confusion that reigns within the ranks of the language teachers themselves. Dr. Blancké also discussed the preliminary language exploratory courses now prevalent in many parts of the country.

The remarks of Dr. Joseph Palamountain, representative of the Macmillan Company, New York, were centered around the publication of modern foreign language texts. Dr. Palamountain suggested a closer correlation between the spoken idiom and the language usages employed in many of our grammars. Clarification and simplification of grammatical rules were likewise suggested.

Miss Emily Redmond, teacher of Spanish, Peabody High School, Pittsburgh, in a very impressive manner pleaded for more whole-hearted efforts on the part of the teachers to make their courses attractive and interesting in order to maintain the standards of modern foreign language instruction. She reviewed briefly her methods in Peabody High School and convinced those present that her classes must be interesting, attractive and vital to the students.

The officers of the Association (elected in June) are: Lloyd L. Stutzman, Reading, *President*; Coit Hoechst, Pittsburgh, *Vice-President*; and Marion Griggs, Pittsburgh, *Secretary-Treasurer*.

• Reviews •

STAUBACH, CHARLES N., *How to Study Languages*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937. Paper. 24 pp. Price, 20 cents.

Mr. Staubach's book cannot be evaluated in terms of price or number of pages. In proportion to its size, it has more—and more useful—material of a practical nature for students of foreign languages than any other similar publication that has come to my notice. The first section deals with the approach, functions, and practical psychology of language learning. A firm stand, based on unassailable logic, is taken on the use of marked and interlined copies of texts. The following section, on devices for practice, has helpful hints on working aloud, oral practice, the correlation of oral and written preparation, visualization, and memorizing. Rote-learning is not frowned upon; rather it is encouraged when appropriate to the material to be acquired. The importance of learning to think and read in phrases is also stressed. The third section, devoted to the mastery of verbs, includes directions for making drill-cards, used as an aid in learning key-forms and patterns of verbs. The fourth section, on the learning of vocabu-

lary, and the fifth, on the study and use of grammar, are equally valuable and helpful. Section six, dealing with the improvement of reading ability, is rich in useful hints for the acquisition of vocabulary. The seventh section, on distribution of study-time, presents in clear fashion the value of differentiating between rote-learning or drill work, for which frequent short periods are advocated, and grammar or translation work, for which longer periods are recommended. Section eight gives suggestions for self-examination and reviewing. Throughout, the importance of the study of cognates and derivatives is pointed out.

The relatively slight cost of Mr. Staubach's pamphlet, the helpfulness of its numerous practical suggestions, and the soundness of its underlying pedagogical principles, alike commend it to teachers who would like to recommend to their pupils a handy, concise, and convenient everyday guide to language learning.

HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE

*The George Washington University,
Washington, District of Columbia*

COCHRAN, GRACE, EDDY, HELEN M., and REDFIELD, ISABELLE C., *Basic French*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1936. Cloth. Illustrated. Price, \$1.88. Preface, pp. iii-vi; text, 6-506; idiomatic expressions, 507-521; songs, 522-531; appendix, 532-551; vocabulary, 553-589; index, 591-597.

In 1929 the initial volumes in the Chicago French Series appeared, the two readers, *Si nous lisions* and *Pierrille*, and the grammar, *Training for Reading*, accompanied by a workbook and a testbook. The readers, pioneers in the field of graded reading in French based on a frequency vocabulary, won favorable recognition at once; the grammar was less well received, probably because of the cost of the five volumes of the group and also because the presentation suffered from an excess of analysis. It is evidently with intent to overcome these disadvantages that the authors have combined the separate volumes into one book, retaining the reading units with only minor alterations, but modifying the grammar. The value of the reading units needs no new discussion; we are concerned here merely with the new material in the sections called *Avant de lire*.

One of these sections precedes each chapter of the reading. Each contains work on pronunciation, presentation of grammar, recognition exercises based on the grammar, notes to forestall difficulties in the reading, and a pleasant little dialogue called "Conversation," which, however, is not an integral part of the work and may be omitted. The excellent material on pronunciation follows closely that in *Beginning French*, where, however, it was given in ten preliminary lessons. Here the teaching of the new sounds accompanies the work of the first ten lessons in grammar and reading. This is a disadvantage from the point of view of teaching. For example, the vowel sounds in *un* and *une*, which occur in the first grammar lesson, are not taught until the fifth and ninth lessons. An innovation has been made by changing the phonetic symbols [e] to [é-]; [y] to [ü]; and [j] to [q]. For English-speaking pupils, this substitution seems practical.

The grammar material in each section "is designed to prepare the student for the reading unit *immediately* following and is so closely connected with the latter that it presents *only* grammatical variations and related forms found in that material." (The italics are mine.) This claim of preparation for immediate reading is true of much of the material, especially at the beginning of the book, but it cannot be substantiated entirely. In Lesson VIII, page 121, almost a page is given to an explanation of the superlative of adjectives, but no case of their use is found in the accompanying chapter of reading; a case of *le meilleur* occurs on page 147; a case of the formation with *le plus* does not occur until page 183. On page 233 the past descriptive is explained, with its three usages of habitual action, action in progress and a condition or state, but no case of action in progress occurs in the text until page 285, and no case of habitual action until page 315. There is a similar lack of coordination between the teaching of the future

and the subjunctive, to mention only two other cases, and the appearance of these forms in the text.

The reason for these discrepancies is obvious. It lies in the fact that reading material, even "made" material, such as this is, does not lend itself to a systematic presentation of grammar. It would have been possible to treat almost all new forms as vocabulary or "usages," as is done in the case of some verbs, *voudrais*, page 113, *payait*, page 205, *vive!* page 168, and later, when enough forms had occurred, they could have been systematized to form the basis for the recognition of similar forms. This would have been inductive grammar teaching in its real meaning. With this procedure the memory of the student would not be burdened with forms which are not immediately useful (some forms given have extremely remote usefulness: *je nais*, *vous courûtes*, for example), much grammatical baggage could have been discarded, and the development of the reading ability, the primary aim of the text, accomplished more economically.

The secondary aim of the authors is stated to be "to provide a sound foundation for the later development of speaking and writing." Whether this foundation will be laid when the exercises provided are almost entirely of the recognition type, only actual use of the book in class will show. It may be, as the advocates of the direct reading method claim, that learning to read a language is the shortest way of learning to speak and write it. To this reviewer, however, the present text seems to fall between two stools, in that it overdoes the grammar for the needs of reading, and does not give enough, in the way of practical application, for the needs of speaking and writing.

EUNICE R. GODDARD

Goucher College,
Baltimore, Maryland

ROE, FREDERICK C., *Twentieth Century French Prose*. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1936. Cloth. Price, 90 cents. Introduction, pp. 7-17; Part I, *Le Roman psychologique*, 19-49; Part II, *Le Roman de mœurs*, 50-65; Part III, *La Province*, 66-71; Part IV, *Le Travail*, 72-76; Part V, *La Guerre*, 77-105; Part VI, *Le Sport*, 106-109; Part VII, *L'Exotisme*, 110-130; notes, 131-136; glossary, 137-143.

The editor of this anthology is to be commended for offering for college use extracts from authors of our own time. The hidebound philologists who regarded with disdain all French literature written since *le Grand Siècle* are becoming anachronous survivals, comparable to museum curiosities. Rare also today are candidates for the Ph.D. degree in French who take no courses in the nineteenth century. Much as the classical masterpieces merit attention in their legitimate sphere, they are rather remote from the life and interests of all except advanced students. And the wise teacher will keep in view the stimulation of interest.

Now, one essential condition of student interest is variety, a further good feature of Professor Roe's book, which provides selections from widely divergent writers. Among them we find such vivid contrasts as Raymond Poincaré and Marcel Proust, Romain Rolland and the Tharaud brothers, André Gide and François Mauriac, Mme Colette and Myriam Harry, Édouard Estaunié and Pierre Hamp, Georges Duhamel and Pierre Benoit, Julien Green and Paul Morand. Nor, certainly, does a monotonous similarity characterize the other representatives: André Maurois, Roland Dorgelès, Abel Bonnard, Alphonse de Chateaubriant, Joseph Kessel, Henry de Montherlant.

Gratifying though this diversity be, we doubt the wisdom of including some of the authors. The style of Proust is so un-French that even most graduate students read him only as a duty; and after the fourth volume of Rolland's *Jean-Christophe*, their ardor cools rapidly. As for André Gide, despite his influence in France, few Americans are fond of his somewhat unsavory "Protestant" fiction. A like objection applies to most of Mauriac's "Catholic"

novels, his avowed purpose being to depict the ugliness of pagan society. Repugnant, too, is the realistic *Juiverie* of the Tharauds. Happily, their stories of this character so closely approach actual history as to compensate for a little nausea.

There remains the question of adaptability. The slender proportions of *Twentieth Century French Prose* (scarcely one hundred pages of text) exclude its use for class reading. And lack of biographical and critical information makes it unsatisfactory as an outline in a "survey course." Could the instructor lecture on the twenty authors, letting the extract from each serve as a specimen? Considering the brevity of the selections, such a method might render their value illusory. It appears, then, that the anthology might well have been considerably extended, and the chapters, enlarged accordingly, provided with critical matter. Further, a photograph of each author would have imparted much additional interest.

Space limitations do not permit of considering such details as notes, glossary, and typographical errors. However, to avoid trouble with Pierre Benoit, his name should appear without the circumflex accent.

WILLIAM H. SCHEIFLEY

Indiana University,
Bloomington, Indiana

PARGMENT, M. S., *Initiation à la langue française*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1936. Cloth. Illustrated. Price, \$1.68. Foreword, pp. v-x, French pronunciation, xiii-xxvii; Leçons 1-73, 1-302; supplementary readings and songs, 305-374; vocabulary to supplementary readings, 375-396; reference grammar, 399-446; verbs, 448-479; vocabularies, iii-xxv; indexes, xxvii-xxxi.

To the rapidly growing list of American elementary French books, some of the standard type, others expounding the trend toward the reading objective, is added this work, which is, in the words of the author, "very different from other existing first-year books."

The introductory material on pronunciation is very carefully prepared. The wealth of instructions, exercises, and descriptions of sound formation should give the student a scientific and useful understanding of the matter. The arrangement of the lessons is unusual. Each lesson is in three parts: the first contains the basic section of the lesson, with the grammatical material taught by simple statement of rules, supplemented with copious examples (non-essentials have been omitted); the second section is based on the material of the preceding lesson, in keeping with the author's sound theory that a "steady reappearance of the material learned" is indispensable to progress; and the third section is a *devoir*, based on the grammar material of the lesson, to be prepared for the following recitation. This inclusion in one lesson of material based on the preceding lesson and that designed for the next recitation might seem confusing on first sight, but once the system is mastered, it is believed that both teachers and students will appreciate the soundness of the principle, and will forestall, rather than have to correct, many common mistakes. The vocabularies of the lessons have been well selected, the majority of the words having high frequency in the basic lists. The phonetic transcriptions follow each new word.* Only the most common of the irregular verbs are introduced in the body of the lessons, a distinction being made between the forms which are to be learned and those for which a passive knowledge is adequate. The exercises are both oral and written, are clear and simple, and should amply suffice for an intensive study of the grammatical points under consideration. They are considerably less tedious than those found in many beginners' books. The forty stories, the poems, and the songs (with music) which make up the supplementary readings are refreshing, and, with their questions, form a valuable addition to the work.

Professor Pargment's work is a distinct contribution to the art of textbook preparation.

* Unhappily, in the first printing there occur many errors, which will have been corrected in the next. It is suggested that teachers check transcriptions for obvious mistakes. A few omissions have also been noticed.

He has had the courage to present his material in an altogether new form, has made eliminations and differentiations which may surprise some teachers, but which should assist the beginning student in gaining (with neither too much confusion nor too much repugnance) a good knowledge of French. For secondary schools this text is recommended; but the reviewer wonders if the seventy-three lessons can be combined satisfactorily for use in college classes.

GEORGE B. WATTS

Davidson College,
Davidson, North Carolina

CAHUET, ALBÉRIC, *Le Missel d'Amour*. Edited by Alexander G. Fite. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1936. Cloth. Illustrated. Price, \$1.20. Foreword, p. v; introduction, pp. vi-xxv; lettre-préface de M. Paul Bourget, 3-5; text, 7-105; notes, 107-123; vocabulary, 125-155.

Professor Alexander G. Fite's annotated edition of Albéric Cahuet's masterpiece, *Le Missel d'Amour*, has made available not only an additional text in the field of recent French literature, but one that will enrich the student's knowledge of the French language, French history and French culture. The introduction gives full and interesting data concerning the author, his literary production, and his place in French letters. In writing the "lettre-préface" for *Le Missel d'Amour*, Paul Bourget paid Cahuet signal honor, praising no less highly than Cahuet's skill in treating his subject the literary and historical elements of the story.

The setting is the beautiful château region along the Dordogne in the ancient province of Périgord. The celebrated château of Castelnau, an imposing feudal castle which has the distinction of going back to the twelfth century, becomes Cahuet's castle, Roc-Ferrand, in which the action of his story unfolds. Cahuet makes the narrator of his story a "vieux garçon" who tells beautifully a story of romance and mystery in which, with the leaves of a "Book of Hours," are unfolded dark pages of the past.

Because of its interest as well as its literary and historical value, Fite's edition of *Le Missel d'Amour* is destined to make the study of French more attractive to teachers and pupils alike. It is of suitable length for the classroom. The vocabulary, comprising a range of approximately 1900 words, is excellent. Especially to be commended are the notes, for instance, that on "Books of Hours," p. 113.

The teacher of intermediate French who wishes his students to feel the charm of present-day French culture through an evocation of the past will welcome Fite's edition of *Le Missel d'Amour*.

SUZANNE LASATER

University of Oklahoma,
Norman, Oklahoma

HAXO, HENRY E., *Elementary French Reader*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1936. Cloth. Illustrated. Price, \$1.35. Introduction, pp. vii-xvii; text (with footnotes and exercises), 1-200; verbs, 201-219; vocabulary, 220-252.

This collection gives a wide variety of reading material and of vocabulary. It includes selections from well-known authors, simplified by substituting words of high frequency for those of low frequency, by the omission of descriptive passages, and by the use of the historical present; also, historical selections and short articles on various phases of French civilization. It is meant to provide graded material for use early in the course. The vocabulary is made to conform to the Van der Beke Word Book and verb tenses are introduced gradually. Notes on vocabulary, grammatical forms, and idioms are placed at the foot of the pages. A complete vocabulary is included. In the introduction some excellent word-recognition aids are provided. A variety of exercises, such as questions in French on the text to be answered either in French

or in English, drills on verb forms, idioms, etc., and completion and selection exercises for vocabulary, gives further help in vocabulary building.

Some of the selections have appeared in a number of readers, but others are new to the American teacher. The literary flavor has not been destroyed and one becomes acquainted with a wide variety of authors. The illustrations are good and the book is very attractively arranged. It seems suitable for first-year college and second-year high-school use.

ALICE M. FINN

*Niagara Falls High School,
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HILDENBRANDT, FRED, *Fritz Freemann wird Reporter*. Edited by Dora Kreykenbohm Willner. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936. Cloth. Illustrated. Price, \$1.20. Introduction, pp. ix-xi; text, 1-126; vocabulary, 127-194.

This book is an interesting story of the rise of an ambitious boy from a position as errand boy to that of reporter of a large German newspaper. It deals with present-day situations in a large German city. The subject-matter will hold the interest primarily of boys, although girls will probably like the story also. There are many humorous and also many sad episodes, none of which ever keep the story from moving forward.

Although the vocabulary consists of over 3000 words, many of these are technical terms; and as long as the reading aim is one of general meaning and not detailed analysis, these technical terms do not hinder the progress of the reader very much. The reader can follow Fritz Freemann's adventures without looking up very many of these technical terms. Besides, there are pupils who like to know what words the Germans have for fire-engine, tire, suburb, etc.

Fritz Freeman wird Reporter can best be used in the fourth semester of high school or the third semester of college. Because of its great human interest and rapid movement, I feel that this book will better serve the purpose of rapid extensive reading than that of intensive reading.

ARNOLD A. ORTMANN

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DURIAN, WOLF, *Kai aus der Kiste*. Edited by John L. Kind. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1936. Cloth. Illustrated. Price, 80 cents. Preface, pp. iii-v; text, 1-76; notes, 79-88; *Fragen*, 91-103; vocabulary, i-lviii.

A half-fantastic, half-realistic bit of juvenile literature depicting the activity of the street-urchin of the German metropolis during pre-war times; a rapidly-moving picture of the city's life, which cannot fail to interest our students.

With incredible adroitness and ingenuity the masterful boy-leader of a secret band of several thousand young dwellers of the back alleys wins out, through the ready obedience of these followers, in an advertising contest for a brand of American-made cigarettes against a professional agent, mainly by cleverly outwitting all the sworn enemies of the street-Arab.

The realism of the action, the nightly mass-meetings of the band and their subsequent scampering through the streets, carrying out the orders of the resourceful Kai, which, as advertising stunts, astound the mystified population the next morning, and the tricks and pranks of the boy-hero of the ever-ready wit, are refreshing and intriguing to juveniles and adults alike.

The racy diction and terse phrasing of the *Berliner Deutsch* helps decidedly to sustain the interest of the reader.

In the twenty-four pages of notes the editor has interpreted in English the more difficult grammatical principles involved in the author's style. Although they are concise and to the

point, the reviewer believes that these notes will hardly promote the enjoyment of reading from the student who begins the story "even before the completion of the first lesson-book," as the preface tells us. Its reading should be deferred till later.

The questions are entirely adequate for extensive oral work. The German-English vocabulary contains about 2000 items, including idiomatic phrases and the separate listing of the tense-forms. A system of references is used throughout the text which is intended to facilitate the student's acquisition of idiomatic usages, and will certainly achieve this desirable result if systematically followed under the guidance of the instructor.

BERNHARD C. STRAUBE

Webster, Massachusetts

FORRESTER, KATHARINE T., AND LOLY, KATHLEEN D., *¡Vamos a México!* Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1936. Cloth. Illustrated. Price, 60 cents. Preface, pp. iii-vi; Lessons I-XXXIV (with questions), 1-73; vocabulary, 74-102.

This is a reader of easy content, meant to be used in beginning classes some time after the first six weeks of study. It takes two young American students on an imaginary summer's visit to two Mexican friends who live on a large *hacienda* near Mexico City.

The thirty-four lessons provide interesting and practical reading, at the same time giving a good deal of information about the geography, customs, and history of Mexico. Each lesson ends with a questionnaire. At rather regular intervals there are additional review-lessons (six in all) of some length and no little value. There is a rather good bibliography on Mexico, and scattered through the text are ten sketches of native scenes which are typical and which add much to the interest of the book. The vocabulary numbers 1045 words, of which 93 per cent appear in Buchanan's Spanish Word Book.

¡Vamos a México! is a very satisfactory reader, and takes a deserved place alongside a more advanced but equally fine text by the same authors, *Vistas de México*.

WALTER M. LANGFORD

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NOTICE

The annual meeting of the Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Central West and South will be held on May 7 and 8, 1937, at the Palmer House, Chicago, Ill. Further information may be obtained from the secretary, Miss Lilly Lindquist, Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Mich.